

THE

LITERARY PANORAMA.

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For JUNE, 1807.

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Report on the Events and Circumstances
which produced the Union of the Kingdoms of England and Scotland ;

On the effects of this great national Event,
on the reciprocal Interests of both Kingdoms ; and

On the Political and Commercial Influence
of Great Britain, in the Balance of Power
in Europe.

[2 Vols. 8vo. not published.]

THESE volumes are part of those researches into the events of past times, which we have already communicated the history of to the Public. They are, undoubtedly, truly honourable to their patrons, and compilers ; and every way interesting to the general observer of human nature, to the investigator of British history, and to the enlightened British statesman.

We conceive, that in order to estimate properly the advantages consequent on the union of the two kingdoms, it is necessary to obtain an accurate knowledge of the state of manners, and the prevalent principles which governed the subjects of them respectively. Border manners are now little understood among us : the principles of clanship not much more. We propose, therefore, to shew what those evils were which this measure was intended to remedy, before we proceed to examine the completion of it. All can judge of the actual advantages which their eyes behold, but very few can even guess at those miseries which once prevailed over districts where they now pass in peace. Nevertheless, the calamities which have been removed are well entitled to a place in our estimate ; and justice to the memory of those sagacious statesmen who laboured (at length effectually) to remedy them, demands that we should not forget the then extant state of things, since

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thereby we cannot avoid being more fully gratified, when congratulating ourselves on blessings to which they looked forward with patriotic anticipation.

We shall, in the first place, present a picture, we believe a very faithful portrait, of the character and manners of the Highland clans, in times past ; for which we are now obliged to Lord Selkirk, though we remember many years ago to have perused the original.

A very curious description of the state of the Highlands in the early part of last century is given in a book entitled, " Letters from a Gentleman in the North of Scotland to his Friend in London," printed in 1784. The date of the letters, however, appears to have been about 1725 or 1730. Though anonymous, the internal evidence of their authenticity is so strong, as to leave no impression of doubt : and the writer (who appears to have been an officer of engineers quartered at Inverness) shows himself a man of observation and of candour. As the book is now rare, and the account of peculiar value, from being a detail of facts immediately under the eye of the writer, a large extract may not perhaps be unacceptable.

" The Highlanders are divided into tribes, or clans, under chiefs or chieftains, as they are called in the laws of Scotland, and each clan again divided into branches, from the main stock, who have chieftains over them. These are subdivided into smaller branches of fifty or sixty men who deduce their original from their particular chieftains ; and rely upon them as their more immediate protectors and defenders.

" But, for better distinction, I shall use the word chief for the head of a whole clan ; and the principal of a tribe, derived from him, I shall call a chieftain.

" The ordinary Highlanders esteem it the most sublime degree of virtue to love their chief and pay him a blind obedience, although it be in opposition to the government, the laws of the kingdom, or even

to the law of God. He is their idol; and as they profess to know no king but him (I was going further) so will they say they ought to do whatever he commands, without inquiry.

Next to this love of their chief is that of the particular branch from whence they sprung, and in a third degree to those of the whole clan or name, whom they will assist, right or wrong, against those of any other tribe with which they are at variance; to whom their enmity, like that of exasperated brothers, is most outrageous."—(Vol. II. p. 91.)

"The chief exercises an arbitrary authority over his vassals, determines all differences and disputes that happen among them, and levies taxes upon extraordinary occasions; such as the marriage of a daughter, building a house, or some pretence for his support, and the honour of the name. And if any one should refuse to contribute to the best of his ability, he is sure of severe treatment; and if he persisted in his obstinacy, he would be cast out of the tribe by general consent. But instances of this kind have very rarely happened.

"This power of the chiefs is not supported by interest as they are landlords, but as lineally descended from the old patriarchs, or fathers of the families; for they hold the same authority when they have lost their estates, as may appear from several, and particularly one, who commands in his clan, though at the same time they maintain him, having nothing left of his own.

"On the other hand, the chief even against the laws, is to protect his followers, as they are sometimes called, be they never so criminal.

"He is their leader in clan-quarrels, must free the necessitous from the arrears of rent, and maintain such who by accidents are fallen to total decay.

"If by increase of the tribe any small farms are wanting for support of such addition, he splits them into lesser portions; because all must be somehow provided for. And as the meanest among them pretend to be his relations by consanguinity, they insist upon the privilege of taking him by the hand, wherever they meet him.

"Concerning this last, I once saw a number of very discontented countenances, when a certain lord, one of the chiefs, endeavoured to evade this ceremony.

"It was in presence of an English gentleman in high station, from whom he would willingly have concealed the knowledge of such seeming familiarity with slaves of so wretched appearance; and thinking it, I suppose, as a kind of contradiction to what he had often boasted at other times. viz. his despotic power in his clan.

"The unlimited love and obedience the Highlanders to their chiefs, are not confined to the lower order of their followers; but are the same with those who are near them in rank."—(p. 94 *et seq.*)

"Some of the chiefs have not only personal dislikes and enmity to each other, but there are also hereditary feuds between clan and clan; which have been handed down from one generation to another for several ages.

"These quarrels descend to the meanest vassal; and thus, sometimes, an innocent person suffers for crimes committed by his tribe at a vast distance of time before his being began.

"When a quarrel begins in words between two Highlanders of different clans, it is esteemed the very height of malice and rancour, and the greatest of all provocations, to reproach one another with the vices or personal defects of their chief, which, for the most part, ends in wounds or death."—(p. 100.)

"By an old Scottish law, the chief was made accountable for any depredations, or other violences committed by his clan upon the borders of the Lowlands; and in extraordinary cases he was obliged to give up his son, or some other near relation, as a hostage for the peaceable behaviour of his followers in that respect.

"By this law (for I never saw the act) he must surely have had an entire command over them; at least, tacitly, or by inference understood. For how unreasonable, not to say unjust, must such a restriction have been to him, if by sanction of the same law he had not had a coercive and judicial authority over those in whose choice and power it always lay to bring punishment upon him? If he had such an absolute command over them, was it not to make of every chief a petty prince in his own territory, and his followers a people distinct and separate from all others?"—(p. 103.)

"I have heard many instances of the faithfulness of particular Highlanders to their masters, but shall relate only one, which is to me very well known.

"At the battle of Glenshiels, in the rebellion of the year 1719, a gentleman, (George Munro of Culcainne) for whom I have a great esteem, commanded a company of Highlandmen, raised out of his father's clan, and entertained at his own expense. There he was dangerously wounded in the thigh from a party of the rebel Highlanders, posted upon the declivity of a mountain, who kept on firing at him after he was down, according to their want of discipline in spending much fire, upon one single officer, which, distributed among the body, might thin the ranks of their enemy."

"When after he fell, and found by their

behaviour they were resolved to dispatch him outright, he bid his servant, who was by, get out of the danger, for he might lose his life, but could be of no manner of succour or service to him; and only desired him, that when he returned home, he would let his father and his family know that he had not misbehaved.

"Hereupon the Highlander burst out into tears, and asking him how he thought he could leave him in that condition, and what they would think of him at home, set himself down on his hands and knees over his master, and received several wounds, to shield him from further hurt; till one of the clan, who acted as a serjeant, with a small party dislodged the enemy, after having taken an oath upon his dirk that he would do it.

"This man has often waited at table, when his master and I dined together, but otherwise is treated more like a friend than a servant."—(p. 104 *et seq.*)

"The gentlemen who are near relations of the chief hold pretty large farms, if the estate will allow it, perhaps twenty or thirty pounds a year, and they again, generally, parcel them out to under tenants in small portions. Hence it comes, that by such a division of an old farm (part of an upper tenant's holding), suppose among eight persons, each of them pays an eighth part of every thing."—(p. 104 *et seq.*)

"You will, it is likely, think it strange, that many of the Highland tenants are to maintain a family upon a farm of twelve merks, Scots, per annum, which is thirteen shillings and fourpence sterling, with, perhaps, a cow or two, or a very few sheep or goats; but often the rent is less, and the cattle are wanting.

"What follows is a specimen taken out of a Highland rent-roll, and I do assure you it is genuine, and not the least by many."

BUTTER. OATMEAL. MUTTONS

Scots Money. English. Stones. lb. oz. Bolls. B P. Lip.

Donald Mac Oil vic illi Challum.....	£3 10 4	£0 5 10½	0 3 2 0 2 1 3 ½ and ¼
Murdoch Mac illi Christ	5 17 6	0 9 9½	0 6 4 0 3 3 3 ¼ and ¼
Duncan Mac illi Phadrick	7 0 6	0 12 3½	0 7 8 1 0 3 0½ ¾ and ¾

"I shall here give you a computation of the first article, besides which, there are seven more of the same farm and rent, as you may perceive by the fraction of a sheep in the last column.

"The Money.....	£3 10 4 Scots.=£0 5 10½ sterling.
The butter, three pounds, two ounces, at 4d. per lb.....	0 1 1½
Oatmeal, 2 bushels, 1 peck, 3 lippys and ¼ at 6d. per peck.....	0 4 9½ and ½
Sheep, one eighth and one sixteenth, at 2s.....	0 0 4½

The yearly rent of the farm is £0 12 1½ and ½

"The poverty of the tenants has rendered it customary for the chief, or laird, to free some of them every year from all arrears of rent; this is supposed, upon an average, to be about one year in five of the whole estate."—(p. 154. *et seq.*)

"When a son is born to the chief of a family, there generally arises a contention among the vassals, which of them shall have the fostering of the child, when it is taken from the nurse; and by this means, such differences are sometimes fomented as are hardly ever after thoroughly reconciled.

"The happy man who succeeds in his suit, is ever after called the foster-father; and his children, the foster brothers and sisters of the young laird.

"This they reckon not only endears them to their chief and greatly strengthens their interest with him, but gives them a great deal of consideration among their fellow-vassals; and the foster-brother having the same education as the young chief, may, besides that, in time become his hanchman, or perhaps be promoted to that office under the old patriarch himself, if a vacancy should hap-

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pen; or otherwise, by their interest, obtain orders and a benefice.

"This officer is a sort of secretary, and is to be ready upon all occasions, to venture his life, in defence of his master, and at drinking-bouts he stands behind his seat, at his haunch, from whence his title is derived, and watches the conversation, to see if any one offends his patron.

"An English officer being in company with a certain chieftain, and several other Highland gentlemen, near Killichumen, had an argument with the great man; and both being well warmed with usky, at last the dispute grew very hot. A youth who was hanchman, not understanding one word of English, imagined his chief was insulted, and thereupon drew his pistol from his side, and snapped it at the officer's head; but the pistol missed fire, otherwise it is more than probable he might have suffered death from the hand of that little vermin."—(p. 156 *et seq.*)

"When a chief goes a journey in the hills, or makes a formal visit to an equal, he is said to be attended by all or most part of the officers following, viz,

The Hanchman,—before described.

Bard,—his poet.

Bladir,—his spokesman.

Gilli-more,—carries his broad sword.

Gilli-casflue,—carries him, when on foot, over the fords.

Gilli-constraine,—leads his horse in rough and dangerous ways.

Gilli-trushanarnish,—the baggageman.

The Piper,—who being a gentleman, I should have named him sooner.

The Piper's Gilli,—who carries the bagpipe.

“There are likewise, some gentlemen, near of kin, who bear him company; and besides a number of the common sort, who have no particular employment, but follow him only to partake of the cheer.

“I must own that all these attendants, and the profound respect they pay, must be flattering enough; though the equipage has none of the best appearance.

“But this state may appear to sooth the pride of the chief to a vast degree, if the declaration of one of them was sincere; who at dinner, before a good deal of company, English as well as Scots, myself being one of the number, affirmed, that if his estate was free from incumbrance, and was none of his own, and he was then put to choose between that and the estate of the duke of Newcastle, supposing it to be thirty thousand pounds a year (as somebody said it was), he would make choice of the former with the *following* belonging to it, before the other without it. Now his estate might be about five hundred pounds a year.”—(p. 158, *et seq.*)

“The tribes will not suffer strangers to settle within their precinct, or even those of another clan to enjoy any possession among them; but will soon constrain them to quit their pretensions, by cruelty to their persons, or mischief to their cattle, or other property. Of this there happened two flagrant instances, within a few years past.

“The first was as follows: Gordon, laird of Glenbucket, had been invested by the D. of G. in some lands in Badenoch, by virtue, I think, of a wadset or mortgage. These lands lay among the Macphersons; but the tenants of that name refused to pay the rent to the new landlord, or to acknowledge him as such.

“This refusal put him upon the means to eject them by law; whereupon the tenants came to a resolution to put an end to his suit and new settlement, in the manner following.

“Five or six of them, young fellows, the sons of gentlemen, entered the door of his hut; and in fawning words told him, they were sorry any dispute had happened. That they were then resolved to acknowledge him as their immediate landlord, and would regularly pay him their rent. At the same time

they begged he would withdraw his process, and they hoped they should be agreeable to him for the future. All this while they were almost imperceptibly drawing nearer and nearer to his bed-side, on which he was sitting, in order to prevent his defending himself (as they knew him to be a man of distinguished courage), and then fell suddenly on him; some cutting him with their dirks, and others plunging them into his body. This was perpetrated within sight of the barrack of Ruthven.”—p. 170.

“The other example is of a minister, who had a small farm assigned him, and upon his entrance to it, some of the clan, in the dead of the night, fired five balls through his hut, which all lodged in his bed; but he happening to be absent that night, escaped their barbarity, but was forced to quit the country. Of this he made to me an affecting complaint.

“This kind of cruelty, I think, arises from their dread of innovations, and the notion they entertain, that they have a kind of hereditary right to their farms; and that none of them are to be dispossessed, unless for some great transgression against their chief; in which case every individual would consent to their expulsion.”—p. 173.

“The chiefs (like princes upon the continent, whose dominions lie contiguous) do not invade each others boundaries, while they are in peace and friendship with one another, but demand redress of wrongs; and whosoever should do otherwise, would commit an offence in which every tribe is interested, besides the lasting feud it might create between the two neighbouring clans.”—p. 176.

Of the popular clamours on the subject of depopulation, a curious specimen occurs in some lines, preserved in Lewis's History of the English Translations of the Bible.

“Before that sheep so much did rayne,
Where is one plough then there was twayna;
Of corne and victual right great plentye,
And for one pennye egges twentye.
I trust to God it will be redressed,
That men by sheepe be not suppressed.
Sheepe have eaten men full many a yere,
Now let men eate sheepe and make good cheere.
Those that have many sheepe in store
They may repent it more and more,
Seyuge the greate extreme necessitee,
And yet they shewe no more charitee.”

These ideas appear to have had no less a sanction than that of Sir Thomas Moore.—In a dialogue on the causes of the prevalence of crimes in England, which he introduces in the first book of Utopia, he expresses himself to the same effect.

The West India Common Place Book: compiled from Parliamentary and official Documents; shewing the Interest of Great Britain in its Sugar Colonies, &c. &c. &c. By Sir W. Young, Bart. Quarto, pp. 270. with plates and tables. Price £1. 5s. Phillips, London, 1807.

THERE have been those who doubted whether the system of colonization pursued in modern times, was really beneficial to the parent state: whether the same population, if kept at home, would not have strengthened the nation, considered as a whole, much more than when dispersed in distant dominions. Others have surmised that the cost attendant on the protection, support, and encouragement of colonies, renders them of little advantage to the mother country, if the balance of expenses were struck; and that however their products differ from those of their original country, yet, that the difference only adds to the attractions of a pernicious, not a useful variety. Nature, say they, has given to every country what is necessary for the sustenance and comfort of its inhabitants, and all beyond this is luxury.

To neither of these parties is the work before us addressed; Sir W. Young, admits no question as to the importance of the West India Islands; and, as things stand, the voice of the public will undoubtedly support his opinion. Whatever individuals may think, of confining their desires within the products of their native land, and however they may talk of being independent of foreign commodities, and finding their resources in themselves, nations must conform to circumstances, and their efforts must be directed to the deriving from them all the advantages they afford. That it would not be to the benefit of Britain to relinquish the islands, is certain, because they contribute essentially to the maintenance of various departments of national greatness, on which depends her strength: and because, if they were separated from British protection, not having sufficient ability in themselves, to secure their independence, they would fall a prey to some other power, whose dominion would augment, as that of Britain diminished. The fact is, that political wisdom views them as

important: they contribute to the industry of our island, as well as to its consumption; they assist in promoting that commerce, which naturally inclines to treat all mankind as branches of the same family; and to supply the mutual wants and wishes of all parts of the earth. If the baser passions of man unhappily interrupt the intentions of commerce, the greater is his guilt: but when his milder virtues prevail, the dealings of commerce are carried on in security; and mutual goodwill is the result of her operations. Sound morals, then, no less than sound politics, favour the commercial intercourse of individuals, and of nations. Nor is it common for a philanthropic mind to behold different communities at enmity, without deep regret, or to consider the devastations occasioned by a state of warfare, without sympathy, and even compunction.

The evils attendant on the interruption of public harmony are felt by the West-India Islands with great severity, and we need no other evidence than that furnished by the present volume, to prove, that they act with great force in places, and by channels, to which suspicion does not at first advert. This work is also evidence of the necessity for directing the watchful attention of government to objects of such magnitude and importance; and for treating with great tenderness the complicated interests which are combined in their welfare.

Sir W. Young has long been in the habit of keeping *memoranda* of whatever concerned the British West India Islands. He has been, during many years, a member of the legislature; and in that capacity has had access to valuable and authentic documents, not all of which were submitted to general inspection. When chairman of the "Committee for Accommodating the Trade of London, and of the Kingdom," he "had an immediate correspondence with the Custom House in every quarter, which brought before him *the whole commerce of the kingdom, actual and past*:" he profited also, by the evidence which that inquiry produced; and we may safely place confidence in the documents he has collected.

The volume contains statements of the African slave trade, of the improvement or decline of the colonies, separately, of their produce, the shipping employed in their trade, the export trade to them and

from them, their intercourse with America, on the navigation laws by which they are affected, on their sufferings in time of war, their defence, climate, benefits to the shipping interest, and various incidental articles.

We are glad to see this work published; the least of its effects will be to promote attention and inquiry, but we doubt not of its producing also, whatever alleviations the circumstances of the times permit to be carried into execution. After this general commendation, we shall endeavour to present our readers with information of a more particular description, and such as may interest, not merely planters, or proprietors, but, the public, generally.

The abolition of the slave trade having attracted the attention of our countrymen, to the black population of the islands, Sir W gives, in the first place, a comparative view of the numbers of the negroes; from which we learn that Jamaica contained in 1787, of European white people 23,000: of free people of colour 4,093: of slaves 256,000: which is more than eleven blacks to one European white; and about $9\frac{1}{2}$ slaves to one free person. In 1803, the whites were 28,000: people of colour, 9000: slaves, 280,000: being ten blacks to one European white: and about $7\frac{1}{2}$ free persons to one slave. The increase of the Europeans in this interval, is greatly exceeded by that of the people of colour, which is more than doubled: but, on the whole, the free population has gained upon that of the slaves. In Barbadoes, the whole population, as well white as black, has diminished. In Antigua the slaves are thought to be diminished from nearly 38,000 to 36,000, while the free population is augmented from 2,590 to about 3,000. Taking the whole of the islands together, the whites are augmented from 49,762 to 58,955: the Mulattoes from 10,569 to 21,967: the slaves from 465,276 to 524,205. So that on the whole, the Mulattoes are doubled in numbers, principally by natural increase, though some allowance must be made for refugees from St. Domingo.

The islands differ as to the quantity of produce per acre and per negro: in Jamaica one half hoghead of sugar per acre, two thirds per negro, is the general calculation: somewhat more in Grenada, somewhat less in Antigua. It appears that the

number of slaves imported and retained in the old British islands, during the last four or five years, averages less than formerly; but the British islands newly settled, and cultivated by British capital, have required considerable numbers, in addition to their former strength. The total number of negroes imported 1788, was 24,495: exported 11,058. In 1803, the number imported was 19,960: exported 5,232.

The British supplied to foreign settlements about 20,000 slaves *per ann.*

In 1797, the proportion of cultivation in Jamaica, was about, Acres.

Coffee plantations, - 15,343

Sugar plantations, - 105,232

Provision grounds, - 7,771

The coffee plantations have greatly increased since that period; and indeed, it appears, that Jamaica now produces above three fourths of the coffee sent to Britain, and more than half the sugar: nor has it yet reached the utmost which it may be expected to produce. In 1803 the coffee amounted to 117,936 cwt; that of the other islands was 34,674 cwt: the sugar was 125,000 hogds; that of the other islands 87,300 hogds. The returns from this island are more steady than those from the windward and leeward islands: they being more subject to droughts and to hurricanes. Antigua, for instance, in some years has produced almost 20,000 hogds: in others not 4,000.—These islands are not likely to augment their returns. Trinidad might produce a quantity of sugar equal to that of all the windward and leeward islands; it is a vast, and rich country; and returns already 12,000 hogds. Our author speaks still more highly of Tobago. Another very advantageous circumstance which attends Tobago and Trinidad, is that they are out of the usual track of the hurricanes: so that fleets of ships may lie in perfect security from those destructive visitations which devastate the islands more to the north. The present state of Trinidad is, however, said to require additional importations of negroes, in order to extend its cultivation.

The capital invested in the West-Indies is estimated at,

Negroes £ 50 each, - 28,018,750

Lands, buildings, &c. 56,037,500

Towns, stores, shipping, 2,500,000

86,556,250

Table of West India Exports, general and comparative, of Four Staple Articles.
From the House of Commons, 1806.

	Sugar.—Hogshead 13 Cwt.			Average, 1806.			
	1789.	1799.	1805.	By Negroes.	Rum. P. 110 gal.	Cotton. Cwt.	Coffee. Cwt.
Jamaica,.....	75,000	94,500	126,000	260,000	62,000	35,002	189,161
Barbadoes,.....	9400	11,400	9000	62,500	6000	23,628
Antigua,.....	12,500	8300	3200	36,000	2500	1533
St. Kitt's,.....	11,000	9000	8000	26,000	6200	2965
Nevis,.....	4000	3850	2400	9600	1000	251
Montserrat,.....	3150	2595	2000	9600	800	1286
Tortola, &c.....	6100	3105	2500	8500	1200	1260
Dominica,.....	5450	5200	4600	22,083	2000	9704	24,381
St. Vincent's,.....	6400	12,120	17,200	15,000	7000	11,724	784
Grenada,.....	00	12,000	14,000	21,000	6000	28,750	9654
Tobago,.....	5800	8800	15,327	14,883	9000	8000
Trinidad,.....	4500	12,000	19,709	7000
Total,.....	153,680	176,270	216,227	463,674	107,700	1,240,000	224,000

The quantities of the four staple articles produced by the colonies, we gather from different tables in this work to be,

	SUGAR.	RUM.	COFFEE.	COTTON.
	Hhds.	Prunch.	Cwt.	lbs.
1773.	140,754	54,700		
1793.	164,900	47,500	92,016	9,173,583.
1803.	238,700	77,500	173,883	20,529,878.

The shipping employed in this trade is about 732 vessels; measuring 197,780 tons; navigated by seamen 15,506.

Our author informs us, that the Bourbon cane, a species in many respects superior to what was formerly cultivated, is now almost universally grown in the islands, and has contributed essentially to encrease the quantity of produce. He complains, however, very urgently of the weight of the duties laid on this article by the government at home; and shews that the profits are, from various causes, much less, on the average, than they were some years ago. We hope that this state of things will not be permanent; and, convinced as we are that there is too much truth in this representation, we yet look forward to the time when Sir W's calculations shall shew what the trade *was*, and under what difficulties it laboured, in times past, very much to the advantage of the period, which shall then shew what the trade *is*. It can hardly be expected in any commerce or manufacture whatever, that when it is enlarged into great quantities, and its productions are numerous and abundant, that all parts of it

should retain the same profit as was attached to them when its productions were not so abundant. More business is always done cheaper than less business, as to its rate of profit: the total amount of the advantage on the increased quantity making amends for such reduction. Sir W. gives excellent advice to the planter when he directs him to seek relief, not by calling for a duty *ad valorem*, but "by ameliorating the process in his boiling and curing house, and by endeavouring to bring his sugar to a better quality, and nearer to one standard." In fact, though seldom adverted to, the spirit implied in this advice is one great cause of our ability to pay those heavy imposts to which all our manufactures are subject. Excellent articles will bear a high duty better than inferior ones will bear a low duty; and we agree with our author, "that a system of low duties, in proportion to the inferiority and badness of the article, is a premium on bad and negligent manufacture." We should be sorry to see this principle extended beyond its just limits; but, it must be acknowledged, that the best way of counteracting the burden of duties is, by amalgamating the payment of them with the general cost, and producing an article, which, by its merit, may claim the fair value of the price put upon it, though apparently high, and may, in fact, be cheaper than another for which a lower price is demanded.

It is but fair to state the increase of revenue derived from this article.

	Duty	Revenue
1773	6s. 7d.	£468,987
1787	12 4	954,364
1804	27 0	2,422,669

The whole value of sugar imported to the British government, and to trade, by the expences which it pays is £7,033,265.

The best sugar does not make the best rum: but those canes of which the juice is not convertible into sugar, drip most molasses; and these less pure parts of the plant are converted into rum. Sir W. computes the number of puncheons of rum at nearly half that of the hogheads of sugar: for the whole of the islands about 120,000 puncheons; which are thus distributed in sale:

America, United States .	37,000
British colonies in America .	6,250
Shipping in West Indies .	10,000
Garrisons and Islands .	30,750
Great Britain and Ireland .	36,000

120,000

Rum is the article with which the West India planter pays his debts to America; and as that continent supplies him with various necessities for carrying on his business, it is of importance to him to maintain his connections in that country unimpeached. Rum is not the favourite beverage among the population of the British islands in Europe: brandy is cheaper; and we believe we run no risque of error in saying, that brandy is more easily imitated among the dealers; and therefore, that *genuine home-made* is most to the seller's advantage, however it may concern the buyer. It is therefore more frequently offered for sale, and at prices which present greater temptation. If the profit on sugar per hoghead has decreased, that on rum has increased. In 1794 a puncheon netted £9 10s., it netted in 1803 £20 1s. The Jamaica rum is gauged in strength of spirit at 4s. 6d., that from the leeward islands at 3s. 9d., and Jamaica furnishes nearly three fourths of the whole which is imported into Great Britain. This superiority is attributed to the "higher distillery and spirit," and may stand as a proof of a superior article flourishing under a higher duty, while an inferior article under a lower duty is comparatively disregarded.

The value of Rum to Great Britain is stated at.

Gross Import	£828,169
Customs, Excise, &c.	1,025,758

£2,453,927

Coffee is a berry imported originally from the East, and the true Mocha coffee still maintains its reputation. We know, nevertheless, that those who have travelled into Arabia, and have tasted the beverage made from coffee, in perfection, describe it as vastly superior to any which has undergone a sea voyage. Having lost by the transit a portion of its flavour, it is little or nothing better, when used as a beverage, than the West India coffee, the culture of which is of late very much improved, as well as the produce greatly augmented; so that very little Mocha coffee is now imported. The cultivation of this plant requires less advance of capital than sugar does: it engages less labour, fewer negroes, and succeeds on poorer soils.

The French settlers in their islands had attended greatly to the raising of coffee bushes. Jamaica in 1768 furnished only 4203 cwt., in 1805, 189,161 cwt. and is said to have plantations for 400,000 cwt. The amount of coffee imported in 1804 was 232,309 cwt. of which was exported 224,216 cwt., so that the home consumption was but small. The continent, no doubt, took off this great importation. This beverage is universal in France, Italy, and Germany; and as the supply from St. Domingo was annihilated, what was produced by the British colonies became of course the substitute; the quantity obtained from the islands of any other country being comparatively trivial.

A directly contrary account is given by Sir W. of the Cotton imported: very little of which, he says, is exported in the wool. The great value of this material is, the employment it gives to labour in this land of manufactures. The various processes which it passes through, the great number of persons employed in conducting those processes, the ingenuity exerted and combined in the machinery necessary to the purpose, the various agents, dealers, and tradesmen concerned in the commerce it occasions, all contribute to attach uncommon importance to the growth of cotton. The export of goods manufactured from this vegetable was in value in 1803 nearly ten millions sterling; and the import of the raw material has increased from 1793, when it was

9,164,893 lbs. to 20,529,878 lbs. in 1804. It is an article of precarious growth, varying in quality and quantity, and liable to great and sudden injury from vermin and the chenille. As this article will in all probability engage our attention on many occasions, we shall not enlarge upon it here.

The laws which regulate the commercial intercourse of the colonies engage the worthy baronet's attention; and he considers their provisions at some length. He is an advocate for a free traffic between the West Indies and America; and shews that Great Britain cannot supply the wants of the islands, neither can the British colonies in America; and his conclusion is, that "for the supply of provisions, a direct trade between the United States of America and the West Indies, is to the latter a trade of absolute necessity." The articles in demand are, bread flour, rice, corn, and lumber, or planks, scantling, and oak staves. These are not *manufactured* articles, but are natural produce. They cannot be procured from Britain,

which does not, in all seasons, grow enough of corn, &c. for her own consumption. Indeed the law has limited the exportation of those commodities from the mother country to a quantity utterly inadequate to supply the wants of these colonies, the increased population of which requires supplies of much greater magnitude than were in contemplation when this permission was established. For instance, the quantity of flour allowed by law to be sent to the West Indies is 32,000 barrels; whereas in 1773 the islands consumed 132,440 barrels, and at present they consume above 200,000 barrels.

While the American provinces were colonies of Great Britain, there was no difficulty in encouraging the commerce between them and the West-Indies: The embarrassment began after the independence of those provinces: nor can it be said to be wholly removed at this time; but, as a treaty which certainly includes this subject, is actually pending, we shall not further pursue the consideration of it.

Exports of British Produce and Manufacture to British Sugar Colonies, in 1804-5.

From the House of Commons, 1805.

	Quantity.	Official Value.	Actual Price.	Real Value.
Beer,.....hogshead	9279	£26,372	£4 10s. 0d.	£41,478
Brass,.....cwt.	2394	10,734	9 0 0	21,546
Candles,.....dozen lb.	112,946	25,413	0 11 6	73,415
Coals,.....chaldron	18,280	20,374	3 3 0	55,040
Copper,.....cwt.	13,364	70,960	9 0 0	120,256
Iron,.....cwt.	96,266	248,390	3 10 0	336,931
Pewter,.....cwt.	5119	17,916	5 10 0	28,155
Leather,.....lb	433,919	48,522	72,745
Beaver hats,.....dozen	11,360	45,440	6 0 0	64,160
Felt hats,.....dozen	33,773	43,961	2 5 0	75,989
Stockings,.....dozen	12,120	21,504	2 2 0	25,450
Soap,.....cwt.	10,910	29,966	4 18 0	53,414
Herrings,.....barrel	44,489	51,724	2 5 0	51,724
Printed Cottons,.....at large		1,411,625	50 per cent.	2,117,437
Linen,.....ditto		403,966	605,941
Woollens,.....ditto		242,601	363,901
Cotton yarn,.....ditto		14,580	21,870
Hardware,.....ditto		409,573	614,360
Provisions,.....ditto		28,289	42,434
Corn,.....ditto		14,900	22,800
Sundries,.....ditto		160,000	240,000
Apparel,.....ditto		38,782	55,183
		3,485,801		5,124,210
Above one-fourth freight and clearance,.....		871,450		1,209,019
2½ per cent. merchants' commission, &c.....		114,000		158,627
Total value of British produce and manufacture,		4 71,251		6,551,756
To which add convoy duty, two per cent.....				102,900
Total value,.....				£ 5,663,723

It is not common for the public at large, to consider the islands as depôts for foreign trade; yet it is certain, that they have their importance in this respect, and that they send to the Spanish main, and elsewhere, British goods to a considerable amount. This, with respect to the Spanish government, is a contraband trade; but the British government has so far patronized it, as to make several ports free, for the purpose. Slaves have been a principal article in this trade. But, lately the Americans were the principal carriers. There is, of course, a veil of mystery thrown over a traffic which on one side is illegal: but it is known that many years ago the value sent from Jamaica was £1,500,000. Some part of the goods sent is *not* from the mother country: *nor* from the islands themselves; though the principal commodities may be of that description.

Sir W. evinces a decided partiality for Tobago (of which he now is governor) as being best situated for the extension of this foreign traffic.

We shall not advert to the author's account of the passage to or from the islands: nor to his remark, on convoys, further than to coincide in the propriety of the fleet's arrival from England before Christmas day, if possible; since that is the time for the annual treat of 500,000 negroes with Irish beef and provisions, also with clothing, &c: comforts, which most certainly we shall not grudge to that much injured class of men.

Sir W. favours us with remarks on the military defence of the islands, which we think are of great value, because they are founded on good sense and understanding. Each island should have a *fortress*: and a depôt for troops, should be placed at Barbadoes as the most windward island: our author also demands the presence of a British fleet *constantly* superior; a demand which requires much consideration, and the cost of which is always calculated by those who look with an evil eye on colonies.

When a British fleet, says he, is no longer stationary or cruising in the West Indies, and each small island is abandoned to self defence; it is not perhaps in this *secure* and powerful country easily conceived, how much anxiety pervades every class of people, and disturbs the peace of every family; how many out-looks are by day, and how many

watches kept by night; how much the proclamation for martial law, summoning every planter, servant, and tradesman to arms, is ruinous to business, as destructive to comfort; how great are the private expenses and loss from military array; and how heavy follow the colonial taxes for its maintenance and arrears.

The population consists mostly of persons capable of bearing arms. Comparatively with any county of England, there are few aged white persons, women, or children, in any windward or leeward island, Barbadoes, perhaps, excepted. There are scarcely any white women of the menial and lowest condition; there are very few of the middling class; and the very respectable and well educated ladies in the higher rank of life (happily in some islands numerous) send their children, when very young, to profit by the like education in the seminaries of the mother country, which they and their husbands have had, and which renders society in the colonies, from every accomplishment of liberal manners and improved minds, equal to that of the first gentry in England.

Adventurers in trade, or on the plantations, usually return to Britain when about fifty years of age, if they survive that time of life.

The employment of a permanent Black *corps* in defence of the islands is rather a delicate measure; which though it *has* answered its purpose, occasionally, yet is liable to be viewed with suspicion. Negro soldiers go through the fatigues of service with more safety than Europeans; and the Negro Rangers, in 1795 and 1796, during the Charibbee war in St. Vincent's, served with a courage and fidelity, which greatly contributed to the preservation of the island; not a negro deserted his officer and master, during an inveterate war of 18 months; and afterwards, these faithful slaves returned to their labour, with honour. The tables given by Sir W. of the mortality among the British troops, lead to very serious reflections; we shall adopt his words in stating that during eight months of dry and healthy season, it was 8 per cent.—during the rainy season, 17 per cent.—average for the year, 11 per cent. The negroes lost in the first period, 4 per cent.; in the latter, about 7 per cent.; medium for the year, 5 per cent. On particular occasions (in 1796.) a regiment 776 strong in May, was, in November reduced to 15 fit for duty. Another, in twelve months, lost

20 officers and 516 men : another lost 15 officers and 605 men. Our author thinks that one great cause of this mortality, was the bad choice of stations for barracks : since other regiments, stationed on heights, were generally healthy. He gives some very good advice on this subject. We are far from dispraising either his remarks or their motive.

We recollect that M. Necker, speaking of the plan of M. de Sartine for transferring the war between France and Britain to the West Indies, says, that an estimate was presented to him, in which were items to the following purport : " Of 40,000 men sent to the Islands, deduct for *seasoning*, by the climate, in the first year, *one-third* : 13.333." What a loss of lives, without so much as seeing an enemy ! In fact, all Europeans must have their *seasoning* ; but among the incautious youth which for the most part compose our battalions, what multitudes fall victims to intemperance (by *new rum*) and the climate.

Sir W. strongly advises the relief of regiments after the stay of a few years on the islands : at furthest, every four years.

Advantages of health and life will follow, too, from the soldier's *mind* being cheerfully directed to relief at fixed periods. I have often had occasion to observe, how greatly the spirits of hope and confidence fortify against disease in the West Indies ; and from analogies in domestic life, I may presume, that the soldier having early relief, and a return home to his native country, in view, will be cleared from that predisposing cause of malady and death, of which, in those climates langour and dejection of spirits are too commonly the forerunners. Low spirits and low fever, if not synonymous, are little distant, in the countries I am mentioning ; and the best physicians there consider despondency as the worst of symptoms, even when the man is otherwise in apparent health.

The volume concludes with tables shewing the comparative state of the shipping interest, on which we lately had occasion to drop a few remarks. (Panorama, Vol. II. p. 18.) We shall not, therefore, resume the consideration of that subject. We heartily coincide in the last words of the writer, as what true patriot will not ?

On good and fair conditions I pray to God that peace may speedily be restored to my country ! and with this earnest and heart felt prayer I close this miscellany.

Our readers will perceive that we have considered this publication as entitled to great attention. The contents of it manifest the author to be a man of understanding and judgment ; not one who forms his opinion first, and consults his papers afterwards, but one who assiduously procures whatever documents may illustrate the subject under consideration, and after due investigation makes up his mind to his duty. There will, however, always be some suspicion in the public mind, that a West-India planter will speak quite as favourably on behalf of West-India planters, as adherence to truth may permit. He will, no doubt, complain of those evils under which he suffers ; and will state most strongly those which most closely affect himself. Will he with equal vigour present the benefits which he enjoys, and explain the profits which enrich his coffers ? Is it possible, that he should hold the balance of computation so nicely suspended, that it should not incline somewhat in favour of self-interest ?—unintentionally, yet really. This partiality is so common to the whole race of men, that we dare not expect to find any free from it : and we seldom hear individuals complain of the inconveniences attached to their stations, without thinking, that a more general acquaintance with men and things, would diminish their complaints, and possibly too, by comparison, lessen their sufferings.

We conclude by recommending this work as a valuable repository of authentic and interesting documents to whoever has concerns in the West Indies : and by acknowledging our obligation to the author for much acceptable information, conveyed in a clear and perspicuous manner.

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By way of addition to the information contained in this article, we shall add a few extracts from a work published in 1797 by the French Colonel, de Charmilly, relative to the state of St. Domingo, the most considerable island under French authority, before the expulsion of the whites from thence. What is the amount of the produce of this island at present, we have no means of knowing. The work from which we quote, we believe, was never on public sale ; and only a few copies of it were printed in English. It purports to be an answer to Bry-

an Edwards, Esq. but we shall not notice the points of difference between the two writers. It may possibly furnish other particulars, among our Excerpta.

At St. Domingo the superintendants and managers of property being very well and highly paid (many of them receive a tenth part of the nett produce of the plantations, others receive a tenth of the produce, on paying a tenth of the losses and expenses), young men of good families, carefully brought up, but of small fortunes, were sent to that colony, in order to get such employments. The overseers of plantations, with means of making a fortune, had particular care of their children by women of colour; and very often they had them brought up in France, and granted them their freedom. The women in St. Domingo are in general mothers of numerous children.

The women of colour, are far from being disagreeable, in proportion as they have less mixture with the blacks. Tradesmen, captains of ships, and all others, who do not remain for any considerable time in the colonies, attach themselves to them, and previous to their departure, generally give them a share of their profits.

In some of the English Leeward Islands, the Irish are esteemed the best overseers. In Jamaica, the Scotch are the persons who most generally administer over the plantations; both the one and the other being brought up in rigid economy and great mediocrity, repair to the colonies, in hopes of acquiring a limited fortune. They have settled salaries; they have not the various resources of speculating, which a French overseer or manager of a plantation has; the planters in St. Domingo being men of extensive landed property, generally allow their administrators and overseers, to have as many flocks of sheep, as many horses, mares, mules, and other cattle, as they can well bring up; it is not thus with the English overseers; they are limited to a certain number of cattle for their own use; all the provisions come from Europe for their own consumption, and that of the plantation: thus, they have very few opportunities of knowing what it is to speculate, which acquired means would have given them. They are not rich enough for keeping free women, and still less for granting freedom to their children, when they live with a slave; the proprietor of the plantation generally has those children educated as workmen, &c. but they remain attached to the habitation, and live happy, on account of the succeeding overseer generally bestowing on the children of his predecessor, the cares and services, which, in return, he expects to be conferred on his own.

These are partly the principal causes of

there being many people of colour in the French colonies; to which we may add another, the many large cities, which are in St. Domingo; one will easily suppose it, on reflecting, that there were four cities, which had constantly all the year round, a regular theatre, with each a pretty good company of comedians; and that two or three other towns had play-houses, where performers from the other theatres acted occasionally.

These cities were inhabited by many wealthy merchants, by civil and military officers, by garrisons, of which the regiments called colonial, were settled at St. Domingo; besides, by the officers of the merchant ships; who, selling their own cargo, became inhabitants, having houses, warehouses, carriages, horses, during some years. Most of these persons kept free female Mulattoes, which contributed much to increase the number of the people of colour.

Three parts of the cotton of St. Domingo was smuggled into Jamaica; upwards of two-thirds of the crop of indigo went the same way; Curacao received a great part of the coffee from the Southern and Northern coasts, with some cotton, indigo, and white sugar; the Americans, from the North, likewise carried off a great quantity of contraband sugar and coffee. This must amount in value to upwards of 1,500,000*l.* sterling, which is a greater return than many of the Windward Islands make to their mother countries.

This colony produced in four years 1788, to 1791, 8,140,804 cwt. of sugar, which is 2,035,201 cwt. each year; while Jamaica and the other English colonies produced annually only 1,923,521 cwt.; the surplus of 111,687 cwt. of the annual produce of St. Domingo may serve to balance the errors of the calculation, if there are any.

If we add, the coffee, cotton, indigos, &c. together with the contraband trade (which is easier carried on) for these articles, we shall find in the whole, double the general produce of all the British colonies of the Antilles; even including the three millions of coffee made in Jamaica in 1792.

The physical nature of the Negro's skin, gives him an invaluable advantage in work over the White men; transpiration piercing with difficulty the cellular and greasy tissue which his epidermis covers, he preserves that moisture, necessary for his blood, and is not liable to the inflammatory and putrid diseases, which attack and prove fatal to the Whites; in particular, to the Europeans, in whom the radical humidity is less retained, which renders their blood more inflammatory.

A Letter to W. Manning, Esq. M. P. on the Causes of the rapid and progressive Depreciation of West India Property. Second Edit. pp. 54, price 1s. Richardson, London 1807.

THIS letter with propriety follows Sir W. Young's representation of the state of the West India Islands. It adopts the same principles, and urges the necessity of relieving the planters from their present irksome situation. It is the production of Mr. Bosanquet; a gentleman of unquestionable information and integrity. We cannot suppose, that he would describe existing circumstances as enveloped in thicker gloom than is justified by the fact.

We shall not enter into the question, under what character we ought to consider our colonists? although it forms a principal article of enquiry with Mr. B. They seem to us, to be neither foreigners, nor Britons (*i. e.* resident Britons) exclusively. Having quitted, though not abandoned, their native country, they are not liable to all the calls which she may make on her inhabitants. They cannot keep her peace; they cannot unite in her defence, if suddenly attacked: she may sustain injuries of various descriptions, without their knowledge; and whoever settles at such a distance from her territory, does, in fact, withdraw from many duties which are imposed on those who remain at home. Nevertheless, they are far from being foreigners: they are under the same dominion, they hold communion with the same head, they benefit the same national stock by their labours, they retain their original connections, and most of them would willingly die in their parental land. They are severed from Britain in presence, not in affection; in body, not in mind: they have local attachments at home, in the islands, yet Britain is their home too: this is felt by both parties, and is a feeling which cannot be too much cherished and invigorated. It may well be thought, then, that Britain will lay no more burden on these her children than is demanded by necessity, imperious necessity: while at the same time, the children shew the utmost readiness to assist the parent, in whatever is not inconsistent with their own prosperity.

We have seen in the foregoing article

the progressive increase of West India productions. The consumption of these in Britain has not kept pace with this increase. The export of them to the Continent of Europe, has suffered a check, and the accumulation of stock in the market has at length become a serious evil. Our author thus states the colonial account.

No commiseration or good-will can enable the merchants or factors to advance a sum of nearly four millions, urgently demanded from the produce of sugar on hand, exclusive of the duty to Government, amounting to about 2½ millions more.

This sum of four millions, the supposed value of 150,000 hogsheads, or 2,000,000 Cwt. at 40s. per Cwt. ex-Duty (which exceeds the present average), ought to be distributed in the following proportions:—

To the ship-owners, at 9s. per cwt.	£900,000
To the British manufacturers for value of stores sent out, estimated at 12s per cwt.	- - - - 1,200,000
To the same, as the bill holder, for bills drawn from the West Indies, on average 9s. per cwt.	900,000
To the Insurer 2s.; dock and port charges, 10d, Merchant, broker, &c. 2s. 10.—5s. 8d.	- - - - 580,000
	3,880,000
Balance to the planter - -	120,000
	4,000,000

By what means this evil may be removed, is a question of moment; and presents difficulties on every side.

Mr. B. had in a former letter proposed a duty *ad valorem* on Muscovado sugar. We have stated objections to this principle: if adopted for a permanency, it would issue in the non-improvement of produce. Mr. B. complains of the burdensome weight of the last duty on sugar, observing, very justly, that there is no other crop which tropical estates can grow in lieu of it. Yet we hope he states occurrences not common when he affirms, speaking of the export trade, that,

Real and frivolous difficulties are thrown in the way of a trade which the mother country has the greatest interest to encourage.

Many articles of first necessity to the estates, can only be sent under special licence from the Navy Board; and of course at an additional expence. A coil of rope for mule harness, a roll of sail cloth for the windmill, a sheet of copper to mend his still, a bar of iron for horse-shoes, a tarpawling to cover his stores from the rain, are objects of importance to the planter, but for permission to export which, the consent of the Navy Board must

be obtained. Several ships were actually seized in the last autumn, and some compelled to unload their cargoes, because a few bars of iron had been put on board *with the knowledge of the officer*; and their release was only the result of special application to, and an investigation of the circumstances by, the Treasury. The export of flour, of barley, of beans, and oats, is limited by Act of Parliament to an hundredth part of an adequate supply; though oats, at least, are constantly imported, and are a mere article of commerce. Provisions, therefore, must be obtained from America, yet is the colonist prohibited from paying for these provisions in sugar; and if the American wants not rum, the negroes may starve. Nor are shipments made to the West Indies as those coastwise, to Newcastle, Edinburgh, or Bristol. They are subject to all the forms, intricacies, vexations, and expences of revenue laws and revenue officers.

Other inconveniences are enumerated, till the issue of the whole is, that the returns and profits of the British planter are less than those of foreign colonists; of which Mr. B. gives the following instances

It has been shewn that, during the last six years, the average net return to the British planter has been at the rate of £6 4s. 7d. per hogshead of 13 Cwt or 100 such hogsheads

£602 18 4

The accounts of an estate in the Danish Island of St. Croix now lie before me, in which the net profit to the owner, after all expences paid, is at the rate of £2 10s. per hogshead, or on 100 hogs-heads 1250 0 0 which is exactly double the produce in Britain; and in fact this estate, being the property of an English gentleman, has paid Property Tax in Great Britain, at a rate rather exceeding this average per hogshead.

Should it be thought that these superior proceeds arise from the peculiar fineness of the sugar, or other favourable circumstances, I can only say, that if the fact be so, contact with Britain neutralises these advantages.—In 1799, St. Croix was taken by the English, and the produce sent to England. Eighty hogsheads were sold in London, and produced (without reference to expences of cultivation) £744 9s. 6d., or about £9 6s. 8d. per hogshead. Forty were reshipped to Copenhagen, where they produced £754 5s. 5d., or nearly £19 per hogshead; so that the proprietor lost 50 per cent. by the consignment of his produce to his own hands: for the difference of freight from St. Croix to Copenhagen, or from London to Copenhagen, was probably compensated by the extra insurance to Great Britain in time of war, the waste and

expences incurred by delivery and reshipment in London.

I will add one case more, to prove depreciation. An estate in a British colony, settled by an ancestor of the present possessor in the reign of Charles II. was let, between the years 1750 and 1760, under circumstances not favourable to a high rent, at £2100 sterl. The estate has been many years in hand, and 27 acres of land have been added to it: it has been under good management, and is in every respect an advantage as property. I should not know how to fix a value upon it, under present circumstances; but I find that, two or three years since, a gentleman well qualified to judge of its merits, and desirous to raise its value in the eyes of the proprietor, fixed on £1700 as the rent which might be obtained for it; so that in fifty years this estate has lessened in annual value £400!—What is the present rent of an English property, let in the year 1755 at 2000 guineas per annum—is it £4000 or 5.00?

To ameliorate the condition of the sugar grower Mr. B. proposes to permit the use of sugar in the brewery and distillery: and he obviates some of the objections made against this permission. He proposes also, to exchange brandy for rum in the consumption of the navy, and coffee for tea in the beverage of the people.

But deep politicians might hesitate, at perceiving that these exchanges are considered merely in the light of a commercial operation. In the first place it might be enquired whether rum is a more *wholesome* spirit than brandy? and whether, in the state in which it would be delivered, were it contracted for by government in such immense quantities, it would not justify the New England epithet of *kill devil*, which is an ordinary appellation of this spirit, when *new*. The coffee plantations, as we have seen, prosper exceedingly; proof of superior salubrity should be attached to this article, also. It will be remembered that both these articles are of foreign growth: and if, on enquiry, the health of the public would be most effectually consulted by adopting other beverages, as beer, &c. home made, what becomes of the commercial argument drawn from duties, and taxes, or all the calculations and per centages of the Custom House?

The whole of this tract bespeaks the man of commerce, and the merchant:—the writer avoids the question of general politics, national or colonial.

Observations on the Advantages and Practicability of making Tunnels under Navigable Rivers, particularly applicable to the proposed Tunnel under the Forth. With a Section and Maps. By J. Millar, M.D. and W. Vazie, Esq. 8vo. pp. 140. Price 5s. Edinburgh. Mundell and Co. Taylor, London, 1807.

WHAT a restless creature is man! Not content with walking on the earth, for which nature has fitted him, he swims on the waters, and makes both winds and waves obey him; we have seen him also rise in the air among the clouds, and descend from them too; now we find him intent on perforating the earth, and exploring those depths which seemed to have been effectually secluded from his intermeddling. The necessity of procuring fuel, led our ancestors, in pursuing the veins of coal, to excavate subterraneous passages of considerable length: later ages have continued their labours of this description, and have extended them in almost all directions. The tunnels formed for the purposes of canal navigation, have given rise to many proposals for works similar in construction, though differing in application. And we are now called to consider an attempt, which instead of proposing to conduct a waterway under the earth, proposes to construct a dry path way under the bed of a navigable river. What inadvertence would reject, at the first proposal, as impracticable, or ridiculous, science considers and reconsiders, till the difficulties attending it gradually disappear, and at length the execution of the undertaking is determined.

Among those proposals which seem to offer difficulties of the most formidable description, under ground tunnels may safely be enumerated. The idea is not new: Diodorus Siculus describes a passage of this nature, and, probably, not the first of its kind, which was sunk below the bed of the Euphrates, and admitted of communication between both sides of the river. The grotto of Pausilippo, near Naples, is a passage through a mountain, of about 726 yards in length; the height 50 feet; the breadth about 18 feet. It was open in the time of Augustus. In later times, —the canal of Languedoc passes through a mountain, about 85 toises. The canal of

Picardy does the same, above 4,000 toises. The Chesterfield canal is carried through a tunnel 3000 yards in length: and the tunnel at Sapperton is in length two miles and a half. This tunnel is lined with masonry, and is arched over at top; some places of the lower parts are also lined in the same manner. But, the levels of the Duke of Bridgewater's canals at Walkden, now exceed even this; for some of them contain nearly six miles of tunnelling. The coal mines at Whitehaven extend to the distance of a mile under the Irish sea: their depth is from 80 to 100 fathoms: and it is the ordinary and daily practice for the men and horses which work them, to enter them from the surface of the earth in a morning, and to return to the upper regions in the evening. The passage to these coal mines is *white-washed*, to render it more cheerful; and under the sea it is so *dry*, as to become very disagreeable by the dust it accumulates, and to oblige the conservators of these submarine roadways, to have recourse to frequent *waterings*. In the Culross coal mine, say our authors, beside the entrance on the land there was an exit in the sea; and when James VI. of Scotland visited these works, he was insensibly led by his host, to this exit, when, it being high water, on ascending from the coal pit, seeing himself, without any previous intimation, surrounded by the sea, he was seized with apprehension, and cried out, *treason!* However, he was carried safely ashore in an elegant pinnacle. The trait is extremely characteristic of that prince.

The plan before us is, to construct a tunnel under the Forth, about nine miles above Edinburgh; at Queen's Ferry, where the passage boats now ply, but where wind and tide, are said to occasion delays, which *modern* travellers cannot brook. The communication between the most distant parts of the kingdom has of late been so rapid, that we are now impatient of every impediment: our tedious ancestors employed a week in the journey from London to Edinburgh, we *fly* the distance in half the time. We learn, with pleasure, that a disposition for improvements prevails in the North; and that many bridges have lately been built, where formerly were only ferries. There is no possibility of building a bridge at Queen's Ferry, but the authors of this pamphlet are of opinion

that a tunnel may answer every purpose, and they state very plausibly, that

The benefits of a free communication between the north and the south [of Scotland] will rise in importance and value, when the improvements which are now going on, or are proposed to be undertaken, in the northern districts, shall be accomplished. We may just mention the great national undertaking of the Caledonian canal, uniting the eastern and western oceans; the roads through the Highlands making at the joint expense of government and the landholders; the bridge over the Spey, a spirited enterprise, which has been patriotically prosecuted by the Duke of Gordon and the northern gentry; and another bridge over the Tay, as a substitute for the ferry at Dunkeld; an undertaking which has received the warm support of the Duke of Athol; the projected canal in the interior between Crieff and the river Tay, which is countenanced and encouraged by the Earl of Breadalbane; the harbour now forming by Lord Keith at Kincardine, for the accommodation of the shipping and trade of that town and neighbourhood; and the plan of a general rail-way for the use of the public, as well as a spacious harbour, which is proposed to be executed by the Earl of Elgin.

These are laudable works, spirited and beneficial at the same time to the public, and we hope to the patrons. They are means for adding to the riches of the districts, by rendering their productions more available; while they add also to the general wealth of the kingdom, by increasing a demand which will unquestionably multiply the produce.

It appears, indeed, beyond denial, that the intercourse of different parts of Scotland with each other, has lately increased rapidly. The passage at Kinghorn is nearly doubled in value in twelve years: formerly it maintained only five boats, now it maintains nine. At Queen's ferry, the rent of the toll-bar is augmented one-third in four years. We presume that this may be taken in proof of a general increase of business, and of opulence throughout the country.

We cannot presume to judge of the practicability of this intended tunnel, from personal knowledge; but must acquiesce in the opinion of those professional men who have examined the ground; and who seem to entertain no doubt on the comparative ease of its execution. They think, too, that the increase of inter-

course is certain, and that it affords the prospect of a fair return for the capital sunk. The expense is estimated at, from £150,000, to £170,000, which is proposed to be raised by shares of £100, each.

Two steam engines, at about one-third of the distance from shore on each side, will drain the tunnel from water.

We are much interested in Mr Burdon's statement of the progressive increase of passage at Wearmouth Bridge; it has exceeded the most sanguine expectation.

In 1793, Bishop's ferry produced £250

Pan ferry	- - - -	80
Southwick	- - - -	80

£410

The two latter ferries have ceased. The Bishop's ferry is now let for three years for £660 per ann. reserving the tolls of the market, valued at £30. Mr. B. thinks the tenant would have gone to £900 per ann. further, rather than have relinquished his bargain.

The following table shews the regular increase of this passage in value.

	Bridge	Ferry
1796 - 97 (first year)	£1360	400
97 - 98 - - - -	1380	398
98 - 99 - - - -	1422	356
99 1802 - - - -	1405	386
1802 - 05 - - - -	1645	532
1805 - 08 - - - -	2030	660

May all such noble and public spirited undertakings meet with equal success! There is in the Iron Bridge at Wearmouth a boldness of conception, an accuracy of construction, a display of genius, and a liberality of expense, in overcoming difficulties, which well deserve adequate reward.

The volume before us is well written: and does much credit to those who have interested themselves in this—at first sight, *gigantic* proposal. The plates give a very intelligible representation of the scheme.

This would be a proper place to describe the state and progress of the projected tunnel under the Thames at Rotherhithe: an undertaking which has been resolved on; but we have not been able to obtain any satisfactory intelligence on the actual or probable prospects of that work,

A Sporting Tour through France, &c.

by Col. Thornton, in a Series of Letters to the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Darlington. 2 Vol. Royal 4to. Pp. 500. Price £3 13s. 6d. with 80 Plates in Aqua tinta: and many Vignettes. Longman, and Co. London, 1807.

Few persons see so much of a country as sportsmen, and as they are usually men of remark, and have many opportunities of acquiring information, they often suggest observations on men, manners, and circumstances, which escape those of more sedate pursuits. Papers and books instruct the literati: the sportsman is instructed *vivâ voce*; and in the joy of his heart after the chase has been disposed of, he both gives and receives intelligence on which more cautious characters would be dumb. On the nature of land, its productions, and its value; on the characters of tenantry, and the tricks of a certain rank of life, on the natural bias of the human mind, and the involutions it practises, those who follow the sports of the field, are often extremely well informed. And in this class we must rank Col. Thornton. A man who has studied his art, with no less animation and fervency than a painter studies pictures of old masters, or a sculptor devotes himself to the antique; with no less sagacity and penetration than a politician visits courts, and unravels all the perplexities of intrigue; or a general travels over grounds which have been the scenes of battles and bloodshed. Many tours, interesting to the artist, to the politician, and to the military man, have been published; why should we not peruse with equal interest the exploits of a hero, whose gun brings down partridges by the dozen, and who *lags* in a couple of hours, as many brace as he can carry? But the chase of small game becomes insipid to an exalted mind. We have neither wild boars nor wolves in England: he will, therefore, seek them where they are to be found: and had he enjoyed the same opportunities as Mr. Bruce, of hunting the still nobler game of elephants and rhinoceroses, or, as is occasionally enjoyed by some of our officers in India, of mingling in the heroic chase of the royal tiger, there is no doubt but Col. Thornton would have participated with unspeakable delight in the transporting

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exercise, and would have manifested an ardour exemplary to the inhabitants of Ras-el-Feel, or astonishing to the attendants of an Indian nabob, on the banks of the Ganges or the Burhamputra.

But the Colonel was not induced only by his keenness as a sportsman to visit France: he was in hopes that the season of peace which marked an interval of war, would have been prolonged, and that he might have purchased in that country some of those estates which were offered for sale on very moderate terms. This secondary object led him to make inquiries, the result of which we may seek in vain among other tourists, and has given a value to some parts of his work which probably would not, or could not, have been derived from other sources.

We shall not therefore criticise the execution of these volumes, nor shall we shew our superior knowledge of the French language by pointing out the numerous errors which disfigure the phrases introduced. But we shall accept with readiness what information the writer communicates; and may perhaps refer to our Excerpta, some of those incidents which our limits forbid us from inserting at present; particularly those of the sporting description.

Col. Thornton left England in June, 1802, by way of Brighton, and after a little manœuvring to secure possession of the state cabin, and some practice at shooting of sea-gulls, arrived safely at Dieppe: where the dissimilarity of the people from those he had left was too striking not to afford him amusement. He tells us that "the pier of this port, during the convulsions produced by the revolution, has been entirely neglected, and the channel is so obstructed with sand and gravel, that even the possibility of its being again cleared is extremely doubtful." We shall see in some future article that this is nearly the state of almost all the smaller ports of France.

"The market for horses, at Rouen, is held every Sunday morning on the *Boulevards* on the opposite side of the city, where the noise and clamour is extremely offensive." Against this "abominable evil," the Col. exclaims, and calls on the police to remedy it. — We wish that our own country were free from similar blame, but, whoever has happened to see on a Sunday morning in

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the neighbourhood of London the preparations for bringing the cattle to Smithfield market, would be glad to waive the reproaches of a sensible Frenchman on this subject.

The following observations shew that our author was not a mere sporting tourist.

As I am now about to bid adieu to rural scenery, and on the point of entering Paris, I shall close this letter with a few observations, which I have been enabled to make in the preceding part of my journey.

It has invariably appeared to me, that poor land in England is, in general, the best cultivated. In France, however, this is not the case, where attention to the farm is proportioned to the goodness of the soil. Perhaps the vast population of the country, with the necessity of not trusting to a precarious supply, has induced the French agriculturists to bestow their chief attention on that soil, from which they are confident of deriving a certain crop: but this error is too obvious to require any refutation. It must, indeed, be acknowledged, that the cultivation of an ungrateful soil presents a thousand difficulties; but experience has convinced our English farmers, that, in the end, both the labour and expense are amply compensated. The French farmers are very anxious to make the lands produce as much wheat and rye as possible, and hence arise their erroneous opinions on this subject; for it does not follow, that the more wheat is sown, the more will be reaped; but it is a known fact, that an acre of ground, if kept properly stocked with cattle will yield more if sown only once in four years, than it would do by being sown every year, without this necessary attention.

If the cultivation of a farm be changed, in expectation of a rise in any particular grain, it will seldom be found to answer the farmer's expectation. A regular economy in farming is as necessary as in any thing else; and, although the hopes of immediate profit may dazzle the projector, a deviation from that regularity will assuredly terminate in disappointment.

If a country be rich and populous, it can never be in want of bread, except through the errors of the existing government. The hand of power need not encourage what must be the genuine offspring of free and unfettered inclination. The great culture of rye in France, and that even in the richest provinces, is a gross absurdity; for, throughout the country, there is hardly any soil so bad as to demand rye, the land being, for the most part, good enough for the cultivation of wheat.

It is, however, a matter of surprise, that a country so large and populous as France,

should produce grain sufficient for its inhabitants, when we consider the prodigious extent of its forests, the spacious tracts occupied by the vine, and the prodigious quantity of waste land that may be seen in many of the provinces.

As we have ourselves, (though not lately) travelled over the same parts of France, and at the same time of the year, as the Colonel did, we can bear witness to the truth of his representations, where he describes it, as beautiful, and as abounding with very picturesque scenery. We perceive too, that neither the manners nor the general appearance of the inhabitants have been much changed by the revolution. The *filles* still wear their *cauchoises* caps: the men their immense hats: the postillions their unweildy iron-bound jack boots: and the general population, their inflexible and leg lugging *sabots*.

The Colonel paid particular attention to the manufactory of fire-arms at Versailles: and having challenged the best pieces it could produce, against his English sporting guns, had the satisfaction of coming off conqueror. Like most productions of the two nations the French pieces were most shewy, the English most perfect. Gen. Beaumont, the umpire, though a Frenchman, was decidedly of this opinion.

Considering myself in the neighbourhood of so great a capital as Paris, it had struck me as something singular, that on the road from Versailles, we saw nothing of that hurry and bustle which characterize a near approach to London. On the contrary, we met but a few common stage-carriages, and not a single private one. This is a proud consideration for Englishmen, whose trade and commerce (those sources of opulence which every where meet the eye near our capital) give us a decided superiority over the other nations of Europe. The commerce and the trade of France is very far behind that of England, but to this many circumstances have contributed. Under the old *regime*, the *noblesse*, who constituted an immense part of the community, considered mercantile employments as derogatory to their dignity; trade of every description was despised by those who possessed the best means of entering upon speculations; and a military or clerical life formed the only career of all the younger branches of families of condition. In England, a different line of conduct, and opposite opinions have produced a prodigious accumulation of wealth; and thus the resources of government are drawn from an inexhaustible fountain. In France very different consequences were

Produced even under the most flourishing reigns, and the dreadful effects of the revolution may be said to have almost annihilated that commerce of which the French were previously in possession. On a calm contemplation of these points, therefore, I perceive I had no reason to be surprised at the different appearance of the roads from Versailles to Paris, and between Brentford and London.

Beside the pieces for gunpowder, Col. T. carried with him an air gun, with which he performed several exploits; he indeed informs us that he had killed a deer with this very piece; and in p. 59 of Vol. II. he relates an incident relative to this article of which we should have had no suspicion. We believe there is an act of Parliament against the use of air guns in Britain.

One day in particular, General Mortier, in speaking of air-guns, recalled to the recollection of some officers in company, a circumstance which happened after the retreat of the enemy, but where I cannot precisely call to mind. He said, "do you not remember when I had ordered the cannon to cease firing, that an orderly serjeant who was standing close to us, leaped up very high into the air, and then fell down? We supposed, at first, that he was in a fit, and we were greatly astonished to find him dead, as nothing had been heard or seen to injure him. On his being undressed, however, a ball was found to have struck him, which must have been shot from an air-gun in the adjoining field, and aimed at some of us."—"Yes," replied one of the officers, "I remember it well, and I think we had a fortunate escape." They then stated, that on account of this treachery they hung up all that corps that fell into their hands, considering them not as soldiers, but assassins, and never after gave them any quarter. They acknowledged, at the same time, that they lost many fine men by that corps of Austrians, which they stated to consist of about five hundred men.

Our author does justice to the places of public entertainment in Paris; but speaking of Frascati, the resort of the politest company, he says "I remarked one very disagreeable circumstance in this place, namely, the overpowering smells of brandy, rum, and other spirituous liquors, which are not at all calculated to impress a stranger with an idea of his being at a promenade of the *beau monde*." Nevertheless, in fact, *toute la bonne compagnie alloit*.

On another occasion he gives us the following information.

In the course of the *après dîner* the conversation turned on the value of cattle, when I found that the best Spanish rams sold at from ten to twelve louis, and the mixed breed cheaper in proportion. Mr. Bass requested me to procure him some crosses from ours. The value of national property came next upon the tapis, and I was greatly surprised at hearing that the price of land had fallen very considerably since the peace. Several observations were made on the cause, and among other matters it was stated, that some projected alterations would render the constitution, in many respects, analogous to England; but I could not conceive how this could be an obstacle to the value of estates, as every impartial man must acknowledge, that if our code were cleared of a few excrescences and failings, no better could be desired.

I saw, at the above *château*, several plantations mixed with acacia, and some nurseries of the same trees, which are said to yield very good profit when about three years old. Their growth is surprising; for on measuring one, by no means the largest, I found its height to be twenty feet and a half, and its circumference nearly ten inches.

The Colonel inserts a very amusing account of his introduction to Bonaparte; but later circumstances have diminished the interest which originally attended it. Speaking of the *Hôtel des Invalides*, he says,

I must not omit remarking that in the chapel of this hospital repose the ashes of the noble Marshal Turenne, which were conveyed thither with great pomp on the 23d of September, 1800, by order of the Consuls. When the royal vaults of St. Denis were broke open in 1793, and most of the coffins were melted down for bullets, the lawless banditti that committed the daring outrage, seemed to respect the memory of this illustrious hero, whose corpse was found so completely perfect, that even the features seemed to have undergone but little change, and bore a striking resemblance to the busts and pictures of him which are still extant. The monument (first removed to the museum of French monuments, and afterwards to this chapel), represents Turenne in the arms of Immortality, attended by Wisdom and Valour. The bas-relief, which is in bronze, represents the Marshal in the act of making the celebrated charge at the battle of Turckheim in 1675. He was killed by a cannon ball, near the village of Salzbach, in the sixty-fourth year of his age.

We suppose that our traveller did not know that by order of the King whom the Marshall had served both faithfully and successfully, certain appendages to the arms which

decorated this monument, were cut away after it was placed in the situation intended for it: as a military man, Col. T. could not but have resented this indignity.

We next visited the church of Notre Dame, which did not answer the expectations I had formed of the principal religious edifice in the French metropolis. The choir, indeed, is very handsome, and behind it are the remains of several chapels which fell under the revolutionary fury. The confessionals and the finest monuments have been utterly destroyed; the violated sepulchres still continue open; and, in fact, nothing is visible but bare walls and traces of the most detestable outrage.

The number of sheep, in France, in 1801, amounted only to eleven millions some hundreds; while the produce of England exceeded twenty-five millions. Vol. II. p. 69.

With respect to manufactures, they are not carried on, in France, with any degree of spirit, as there are scarcely any purchasers, and, of the goods offered for sale, two-thirds are the produce of England. However, if some mode were adopted to encourage strangers to spend their money freely, the country would become richer, and it is highly probable that the inhabitants would then invent and execute such articles at home, as they are now obliged to purchase from their neighbours.

The town of Bliss, which previous to the revolution must have been very beautiful, is now sadly disfigured and mutilated, its principal edifices having been demolished for the sake of their materials; and, strange as it may appear, the magnificent castle which had cost twenty thousand pounds in erecting, was actually sold to a Jew at Sarbruck for twenty-five guineas!!—Here, also, we saw the ruins of a fine church which had been suffered to fall to decay even before its completion.

Our author's intention of purchasing an estate in France, was partly frustrated by a law forbidding the naturalization of any foreigner till after a residence of ten years. So that after vesting his property in the country, a person, of whatever respectability, finds himself treated as a vagabond, and excluded from the privileges of citizenship. Col. T. asks, very properly, "under this circumstance, what stranger would leave the place of his nativity, where both his person and property is secure, to settle in a country where all is uncertainty and confusion?"

We do not altogether regret, so much as Col. T. appears to have done, that the existing laws of France operate as a bar to the inclination of an Englishman of fortune and fashion, who fancies he could make that country the place of his residence; and who thinks of transferring his establishments and his property; for however high-sounding the title of "Duc de Chanteloup" may be, we must acknowledge, that in our opinion, the condition of a Yorkshire squire is much more honourable than such a dukedom, under such a government. We wonder indeed that an Englishman of sensibility could harbour the idea of purchasing that property, which has been wrested from owners guilty of no crime, and the sale of which has been decreed by an usurper, solely on account of the proprietors' loyalty to their king. Col. T. has been obliged to record throughout his work, scenes of dilapidation and horror, at which the feeling heart shudders; and we beg the sporting Col. to reflect what might have been the present situation of Thornville-Royal, had the plans of those for whom he expresses too little abhorrence been put in execution.—Might it not now have been the *princely* residence of some assassin, belonging to the legion of honour, [perhaps the murderer of Chantilly's lawful heir, the gallant, loyal Duc d'Enghien!] whose pretty wife might be giving grand entertainments to a travelling visitor, while the lawful proprietor might be a distressed alien in a foreign country,

While yet allegiance in his bosom sat,

Crowned with faith and constant loyalty?

The opinion of the French themselves as to the *justice* of dealing in goods not "honestly come by," appears demonstratively in the average price of land throughout France, which from *bonâ fide* proprietors, the Col. states at twelve years' purchase;—while that which is called *national property*, fetches but six or seven, or ten years' purchase, at most.

On another occasion, the Col. relates the following anecdote.

I had been invited to a *pic nic* party, and though I could not attend, a particular friend who was there mentioned a curious circumstance, which I shall now communicate to your lordship. One of the party happened to be the famous *Tom Paine*, who, upon being asked for a toast, gave the following:—

"England for Liberty, America for Happiness, but Paris alone for Pleasure."

While the bottle was circulating, Paine allowed that he had been proscribed by the Americans as well as the French, but that *Robespierre* was not so infamous a character as was generally supposed, from his reigning during a system of anarchy and terror. He said he did not believe there were virtuous individuals enough existing to render the village of *Richmond*, in Surrey, a pure republic, for that every man, except the First Consul, was to be bribed. So much for the sentiments of republican Paine, who has certainly had a sufficient share of experience to render him a tolerable judge of *equality*.

The Colonel enters with some minuteness into the character and peculiarities of Paris and the Parisians. We cannot follow him in this, but there is something extremely natural in our traveller's descriptions of the different orders of society in that city.

At the present period, society in Paris appears to be divided into three separate classes, viz. the *ci-devant noblesse*, the governmental-class, and *parvenues*, or new comers.

The *ci-devant noblesse*, who have preserved enough of their property to allow them a household-establishment, though in a style very inferior to that which their rank and fortune enabled them to support before the revolution, separate themselves almost entirely from the other classes, and look with a jealous eye upon that visitor who happens to forget the title of the person to whom he addresses himself, or who pronounces any of the new denominations respecting the months, weights, measures, or the divisions of the French territory. From the plebeians, whose presence they will occasionally endure, they expect the utmost obsequiousness and servility; and their conversation generally turns on their interest in the court, or their former *châteaux*, estates, and other establishments. Their aversion of every thing that is not of the old regime is obvious on all occasions; and the hauteur of their manner may, in some instances, be pronounced absurd; yet impartiality compels me to state, that good breeding invariably prevails in this society, and the peculiar characteristic of a Frenchman, as distinguished from other polished nations, here present themselves in a striking manner.

The governmental-class consists of the ministers, counsellors of state, senators, legislators, tribunes, and, in short, all the constituted authorities. In this society the visitors will often hear instructive dissertations on sound literature, the sciences, the fine arts, mechanics, and the means of applying new

discoveries to the French manufactures; but it is prudent to refrain from touching on politics, and particularly to avoid speaking of the revolution, as it is highly probable some individuals in every party of this description may have acted parts in that dreadful tragedy too painful for recollection.

The *parvenues* are those who, from having made some lucky speculations, or having taken advantage of the general wreck of private fortunes and public credit, are now enabled to live in the most affluent style. At the houses of persons of this description *etiquette* is kept up with the utmost strictness; and a stranger will find but little of that social ease and politeness which is constantly remarked in the other societies; each individual being on his guard, lest he should betray his low origin, or former connections, by certain expressions which he has not yet forgotten. However, the company may be amused, if they can derive any gratification from the conversation of *femmes galantes*, or demireps, and skilful performances of mimics, jugglers, and ventriloquists.

It may be of use to some of our readers if we transcribe Col. T.'s recipe for the ague, "which he has never known to fail," it is, "a small spoonful of salt in a tumbler of cold spring water, taken in the morning fasting."

Our readers will perceive that these volumes, though superficial, jovial, and careless, are not destitute of amusement or of information; the printer has certainly done his utmost to render them *handsome*: the plates, in aqua tinta, are numerous; some are striking, many are characteristic; and though we ourselves might have preferred a selection, at a lower price, yet that may arise more from our habits of criticism than from our love of sporting. We doubt not, but that the same cause leads us to take particular notice of Col. T.'s manner of fitting up his library, which is, with fowling pieces, beagle horns, pictures of dogs, horses, and game cocks, glasses of stuffed birds, and beasts, decanters of wine, pine apples from his fruit-eries, and half a dozen shelves of books in a recess at the narrowest end of the room. If instead of delineating a single dog sleeping in this apartment the artist had introduced a well taught pack, a military uniform, and a lady, this single plate might have passed for an epitome of these volumes; and might have been accepted as a fair description of their contents, and no inadequate critique on their merits.

The ancient and modern History of Nice, &c. by J. B. Davis, M. D. one of the British Captives from Verdun, &c. 8vo. pp. 380. Price 8s. Tipper and Richards, London, 1807.

THE introduction to the work before us, contains advice to invalids, who, with the hope of arresting the progress of disease, may seek the renovating influence of southern climes.

At the present period, this promises no great utility to English readers, yet the author would have incurred just reproach, had he omitted it. A time may come, when the perusal of these pages may be of service to those who languish under infirmities for which their native climate affords no relief.

The work comprehends twenty-eight Sections.

Sect. 1 presents the topography of Nice; and of course contains little that is new; we must however except the statement of an epidemic which visited the town in 1799, and carried off a sixth part of the population.

"The first cause of the disease," says our author, "was the continual motion of the troops: without exaggeration, a million passed through Nice in the course of the revolution. It is well known that the armies were frequently in want of every thing. Bad nourishment and bad clothing were soon followed by the most distressing consequences. The hospitals, which were crowded, could not accommodate all the sick, a circumstance which obliged the inhabitants to lodge them in private houses: infection was by this means soon propagated, and every house became a lazaretto."

Sect. 2 describes the manners, character, language, religion, amusements, old and new administration, commerce, and manufactures of the Nissards.

Hospitality, it appears, is a prominent feature in the character of the inhabitants, who are gay, lively, and pleasant in company;—whose manners upon the whole are interesting, and congenial with the mildness of the climate. In the greater number of the small towns and villages situated in the interior part of the country, and among the mountains, the peasants have neither clocks, sun-dials, nor barometers of any description: the crowing of the cock, and the position of the stars, regulate the hours of the night, and the course of the sun those of the day. The inhabitants, by their observations on the

planets, will tell you the hour with nearly as much precision as if it were indicated by a clock. They also predict with a great degree of certainty the changes of the weather, with the assistance of some local circumstances, such as a fog at a certain hour, and on a certain part of the horizon; a cloud of a particular colour on the top of some mountain, or the flight or chirping of birds. They can prognosticate the alterations of the weather, as well, if not better, than any meteorologist.

The third, fourth, fifth, and sixth sections, treat of provisions and house-rent: with descriptive observations on Mont Alban, on the territory of Nice; its productions; and the climate; with meteorological tables during the year 1802.

Afterwards follow the topography of *Villa-Franca*, now *Ville-franche*, and its environs, with that of Monaco: also, a description of Turbia, a monument erected by order of Augustus, to transmit to posterity the names of the inhabitants of the maritime Alps, whom he had subdued. To these are added notices of various towns and districts in the neighbourhood.

By way of specimen we select Dr. Davis's account of that eminent astronomer Cassini.

This country has given birth to a number of celebrated men. Cassini, and the two Miraldi, his nephews, were natives of it. They all belonged to Perinaldo. John Dominicus Cassini was the restorer of astronomy in France, as Galileo was in Italy, and Copernicus in Germany. He was born in 1625, and after having finished his studies at Genoa, he devoted himself entirely to astronomy. He had made such progress in this science, that he was chosen professor of it in the university of Bologna, before he was twenty-five years of age. During his residence in that town, he traced his famous meridian. By means of this admirable invention, the diurnal course of the sun could be observed, as he approached or retired from the zenith of the town. He bestowed such unremitting attention on this subject, that a celebrated astronomer could not help exclaiming—*he was more than human!* In consequence of the observations he made on this meridian, he published more correct tables of the sun, than any that had appeared before that time. He determined the parallax of that planet, established the theory of the comets, and discovered four of the five satellites of Saturn: in short, there was no branch of this sublime science, in which he was not profoundly skilled. His celestial

occupations, however, did not prevent him from attending to terrestrial objects. The inundations of the Po caused frequent disputes between the inhabitants of Bologna and Ferrara. He regulated them to the satisfaction of both towns, and was in consequence made by them superintendent of that river.

Louis XIV, who was ambitious of every kind of glory, wished to draw Cassini into France, and accordingly ordered Colbert to write to him. Cassini replied to this invitation, that he could not accept the honour that was intended him, without the consent of the Pope, and the Senate of Bologna.

The king supposing he could not succeed on those terms, requested them to allow him to reside a few years in France, which was granted.

Cassini arrived at Paris in 1669, and was received by Louis in the same manner that Sosigenes, when he was called to Rome to reform the calendar of Numa, had been received by Cæsar. Some years afterwards, the Pope and Senate of Bologna demanded his return with considerable warmth; but Colbert disputed their authority with as much, and had the satisfaction of succeeding. Cassini married soon after, which was very agreeable to the king, who had the politeness to say to him, he was very happy to see him become a Frenchman for life.

He predicted in presence of all the royal family the course of the famous comet of 1680. He had made a similar prediction at Rome in presence of Queen Christina with respect to the comet of 1664. Both of them followed the course he had traced.

Towards the latter part of his life, he lost his sight. The same misfortune happened to the celebrated Galileo. This made Fontenelle say, in the true spirit of fable, that these great men, who had made so many discoveries, resembled Tiresias, who became blind in consequence of having seen some secret of the Gods. He died in 1712, aged 87 years, without disease, without pain. His only infirmity was his loss of sight. His mind resembled his body. His temper was equal and mild, and never ruffled by those fretful irritations, which are the most painful, and most incurable of diseases.

Among other eminent men, Dr. D. enumerates

The Vanloos, excellent painters, of whom the younger brother was the ablest artist, were both natives of Nice; the same was Alberti, the well known lexicographer; Peter Sofredi, and Paul Lascaris, whose virtues and merits rendered him worthy of being chosen Grand Master of the Order of Malta; he caused the fort of St. Agatha to be built, enriched Malta with a noble library, and added to the possessions of his order, the island of St. Christopher in Ame-

rica, with the adjacent islands of St. Bartholomew and St. Martin.

The author gives a short description of several of the tribes which originally inhabited the maritime Alps and the adjacent country, and so long resisted the Roman arms. Beside those mentioned by Pliny, there were others whom he has passed over in unmerited disregard. The most remarkable were the Adunicates, Oxybii, Velauni, Nerusi, Deciatæ, Vodianii, Oratelli, Hementuri, Equituri, Ectini, Suetri, Beritini, Trivillati, Veimini, Gallitæ, Esubiani, and Edenates: all of which, at a later period, were divided into five districts, that of Grasse, that of Venice, that of Nice, the district of Glandeves, and that of Senez.

Our author extends his researches into antiquity also,

Concerning the date of the foundation of Marseilles, says he, some historians of credit are inclined to fix it under the empire of Cyrus, about the 60th Olympiad; but the most exact chronologists, among the rest, Livy, Justin, Strabo, and Anthæus, attribute it to the 45th Olympiad, and the presumption is in favour of this period: from which considerations we may conclude, that Marseilles was founded 154 years after Rome, and 599 before Christ.

Had not the Phœceans, immediately after their flight, sought an asylum in Gaul, no doubt can exist, but that Marseilles would have been the place of their retreat, in consequence of the consternation which pervaded the Ionians from the success of the Persian arms. The probability is, that two distinct colonies established themselves at Marseilles; the latter, no doubt, arriving, when the great king over-awed Asia. Solinus observes, "*Phœcenses quondam Persarum adventu Massiliam urbem Olympiade quadragesima quinta condiderunt.*" So that Lucan seems to have committed an error, and to have confounded Phocis with the Phœceans of Ionia.

The colony of Marseilles was no sooner established, and a form of government determined, than the inhabitants devoted their attention to commerce. They exchanged the production of the soil for olives, wines, grains of different species, and all kinds of implements necessary for agriculture. The thirst of gain animated their industry, and became the leading feature of their policy. Navigators, geographers, and astronomers, were passionately admired and encouraged; and many enterprising, persevering individuals, obtained pre-eminence in these different sciences. Pythias passed the straits of

Gibraltar, discovered the Spanish shore, and advanced far to the north, more than 320 years before Christ: and another, not less celebrated navigator, sailed towards the south, and coasted along the western banks of Africa and Senegal. In the interior, excellent regulations were adopted, and the laws, engraven on tablets, were exposed in the public places for the inspection of all classes of citizens.

The industry of the Marseillais, however, experienced severe interruptions from the perpetual wars, which the neighbouring barbarians waged against them. This cause, alike cruel and disastrous, obliged them, as their numbers augmented and their arms were successful, to plant new colonies, with the prudent intention of extending their possessions, and guarding the mother city from the irruption of these barbarians.

These objects were no sooner accomplished, than other advantages awaited the settlers. They rather endeavoured to form a virtuous community, than to ameliorate the rudeness of the soil. Commerce, and the arts flourished among them, and the general welfare directed all their actions: in such a manner, that at the fall of the Roman Empire, Marseilles, which according to the opinion of Pliny, had for many ages been the Athens of Gaul, and by the suffrage of Cicero, pre-eminent in science, became the abode of wisdom, talents, and literature."

Sect. 17. We find an account of the foundation of Nice 340 years A. C., built by the Marseillais, as a barrier against the Ligurians.

The history of this city forms, as might be expected, a principal part of the volume. Late events which have incorporated this country with France, are slightly passed over: the probable effects of this union on the welfare of the inhabitants of Nice, are left to conjecture. The Nissards are relieved from some taxes which they formerly paid; but have lost a part of that trade, by which they were enabled to pay them.

Anterior to the French revolution, Nice was infinitely more interesting than at present. There are two fine squares at Nice. In the eastern part of the town are the university, hospital, and botanic garden; but the streets throughout are so narrow and dirty, that few people take the trouble to go thither.

The view of the city prefixed to the volume is a very pretty performance. The absence of an index is both censurable, and injudicious, in a volume of this description.

Essai sur la Vie du Grand Condé, par Louis Joseph de Bourbon, Prince de Condé.

Essay on the Life of the Grand Condé, by Louis Joseph de Bourbon, Prince of Condé, now in England. 8vo. pp. 340. Price 9s. Dulau and Co. London, 1807.

THOSE men—they but are few—who by their mental qualifications have proved superior to the ages they lived in, do not exclusively belong to that country which gave them birth; their glory fills the world they have adorned, and mankind claims kindred with them, as with privileged individuals, who have exalted the dignity of their common nature. To that proud pre-eminence, the Prince of the house of Condé, who is distinguished by the appellation of the Grand Condé, is most certainly entitled. In considering the happy union of those eminent qualities by which he was conspicuous, we forget that he belonged to a rival nation, and willingly pay our tribute of admiration to his wisdom, courage, and virtue.

A work which professes to pourtray such a high character, cannot fail of being interesting; but it receives additional value, from being the production of an illustrious descendant* of that very prince, whose deeds it records, independent of that elegance of style which characterises this essay. We should, indeed, have expected to find in it, those noble and humane sentiments, so suitable to the rank of the illustrious author, and to the tenor of his life: but, we acknowledge, that we had at first, some doubts as to its impartiality. We were apprehensive that filial affection, and the conscious pride of hereditary glory, might have biassed, in some degree, the judgment of the historian. In this we have been agreeably disappointed. The faults and the errors of the Grand Condé are narrated with the same manly freedom, which, in other instances, rescues his fame from unjust aspersions: the conduct of the Court, of Generals, Ministers, and even of Louis XIV. himself, is commented upon with the same independent spirit.

The London publishers inform us, that

* The present Prince de Condé is the fifth in descent from the Grand Condé.

this essay is the juvenile production of his serene highness, often read and corrected in his maturer years: it was at first, intended solely for the instruction of his family; and the manuscript, known but to few, had been deposited in the archives of the palace of Chantilly. But that sacred deposit was not likely to be respected by the revolutionists, who completely destroyed the princely mansion itself. Amidst plunderers of that description, the performance lay long neglected, but, however, it lately fell into the hands of a man who partly appreciated its merit, and published it in Paris with many alterations, additions, and notes, suitable to the views of the present rulers. Thus situated, the Prince of Condé has reluctantly given leave to publish his real work, as the only one he can own, and we may add the only one worthy of his heroic ancestor.

The military achievements of the Grand Condé were well calculated to call forth the most animated powers of an historian emulous of his glory, and have naturally furnished the most brilliant passages of the work before us; it is not, however, from among them that we shall select our extracts; the laurels of heroes, as the illustrious author observes, are unavoidably bedewed with tears and stained with blood: we shall consider the Grand Condé in a more amiable point of view. Neither shall we choose any of the occurrences of his famous rebellion; in times like the present, we could wish that the conception of an ingenious painter were realised, and that the muse of history were able to tear from her records those pages stained with his guilty glory. The author's impartiality has not allowed him to adopt this expedient, and he has commented on the errors of his hero with that unshaken spirit of loyalty, which ever since has marked the house of Condé. We shall translate his highness's summary reflections at the epoch of the treaty *des Pyrennées*, which brought back the Grand Condé to his allegiance.

Such was the glorious end of the misfortunes and of the rebellion of *Mr. le Prince* (the title of the Grand Condé). It were to be wished, no doubt, that history should always shew us punishment attending great faults; yet it must be owned that a great man, whose heart remains unpolluted, although he suffers

himself to be hurried away by error, yet maintains a superiority to it in some degree, as appears in his choice of the means he employs in defending it. Ordinary talents will not disarm the severity of the reader, but admiration compels indulgence; he laments the guilt, though interested by the guilty; he condemns the rebel, yet loves the hero; and concludes by saying, with a kind of self-congratulation, "his error was caused by the misfortunes of the times, but the strength of his mind brought him out of it with glory."

These reflections are peculiarly adapted to the case of Condé, who, neglected and insulted by a weak court, after the most eminent services, solicited by all the factions, who were anxious to have him at their head, answered, "my name is Louis de Bourbon, and I will not shake the throne;" yet, at the instigation, and by the order of a crafty Italian (Cardinal Mazarin) he was thrown into a dungeon like a common malefactor. "I entered," said the high-spirited Prince to Bossuet, "I entered that fatal jail the most innocent of men, but I own that I left it the most guilty." Nor were there wanting, after his forced liberation, provocations enough to drive to extremities a man of a less impetuous temper: yet he repeatedly manifested his unwillingness to proceed to a civil war, and when forced to take shelter in the arms of the enemies of his country, he still evinced, by many deeds, his rooted attachment to its welfare, and to the dignity of its monarch, much against his own private interests. After the death of Mazarin, Louis XIV. did not fail to avail himself of Condé's splendid talents; he became his chief counsellor, and the conduct of the principal military operations were entrusted to him. In the course of his brilliant military career, the illustrious author points out numerous instances of benevolence and humanity, that completely confute the undeserved reproach of unfeeling harshness, which the crowd of historians have urged against him. We shall select the following instance.

In marching through these newly-conquered countries, this Prince, whom history reproaches with an inclination to harshness, manifested all the sensibility of his soul at the scene of misery and devastation which he every where witnessed. Louvois, that cruel and imperious minister of a king too greedy of conquests, caused the harshest and most exorbitant contributions to be imposed on

those unfortunate victims of the ambition of sovereigns, who, strangers to military glory, are acquainted only with the misfortunes that inevitably accompany war, with oppression, ruin, and sufferings of every kind, with which this destructive scourge overwhelms them on all sides.

M. le Prince, at the head of an army, appeared in these conquered provinces rather as a comforter than as a general, and evinced that he was really moved to pity by the complaints of the unfortunate; he eagerly and repeatedly sent to court their submissive, but too well-grounded, petitions, extorted from them by impending starvation; he represented the necessity of conciliating, by a mild and beneficent administration, the affections of that people, whose allegiance could be but precarious, since it was solely due to superior force. The voice of those unfortunate sufferers, the justice of their demands, the prayers of a great man, would have induced any one but Louvois to grant some relief to their misery, but this inexorable Minister's answer was, *that there was a greater need of those people's money than of their good will.*

After the death of Turenne, Mr. le Prince, who had repaired the misfortunes which the loss of that great man had occasioned to France, weighed down by infirmities, requested to have his son, the Duke d'Enghien, then thirty-three years of age, associated with him in the command of the army; the Prince himself at two and twenty had conquered at Rocroy.

But, says the illustrious writer, Louvois, whose ambition was equally blind and boundless, seeing that a cannon-ball had opportunely freed him from the great Turenne, whose existence had been a weight upon him, sought only the means of removing the Prince from the command of the armies, and thought he had found an opportunity in his proposition. He awoke that mistrust in the princes of the blood which forms a part of the education of kings; and which a cunning minister soon fans into jealousy, when personal merit enhances the illustrious births of those chiefs of the state, who are natural heirs and supports of the finest throne of Europe.

The pupil of Mazarin must have been, no doubt, more liable to that weakness than any other sovereign; yet it should seem that Louis XIV. ought to have been above it. This monarch was only a man, Louvois a minister, Condé a prince of the blood. Luxembourg was named general, and the Prince went to Chantilly to re-establish his health.

Condé for a moment left his retreat, and appeared at court on the marriage of

his grandson with one of the king's natural daughters; and there, according to Louis XIV's plan of debasing his courtiers by frivolity, (vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 953) that great man, always simple in his dress, was teized into an imitation of the then fashionable fopperies: ("they had seized the opportunity," says Madame de Sevigné, "when *the lion's paws were tied*;) he shaved his terrific mustachios, appeared gaily attired in a laced coat, sweet-scented like a bridegroom, and even his victorious sword was disfigured by diamonds. It was, perhaps, on this occasion that Louis granted him a curious *brevet*, which we have seen, but we do not recollect its date, authorising him to wear a certain coat, made in a particular form, and embroidered in a particular manner, such as the king himself wore. This *brevet* was considered as a high mark of favour, granted only to a few eminent courtiers.

Soon, however, Condé sought again the shades of Chantilly, where he found entertainment more congenial to his great soul, in the company of the most eminent men in every line; they were admitted to his intimate familiarity without any recommendation but their merit. Superior in many branches of learning, versed in all, the Prince knew how to adapt his conversation to every subject; and the lawgiver, the orator, the poet, and the artist, might be proud to learn from the hero.

Condé had always been the most attentive and the most indulgent of fathers; the education of his son the Duke d'Enghien had been his delight, and in the midst of the most sanguinary contest, he had been seen giving him lessons of that destructive and necessary art in which he was eminent. He now took upon himself to form the tender mind of his grandson, the Duke of Bourbon, who proved worthy of so great a master.

His friends, to whom he had always been so warmly attached, for whom he had at all times sacrificed even too much, even his duty, could not be forgotten in these moments of repose, when the workings of the soul are most attended to. Sharers in their pains and in their pleasures, the Prince exerted for them his credit, and lavished his fortune. Friendship knows not the artificial distinctions of rank; and Condé left his retreat to attend his sick friend and fellow warrior, the Maréchal de Grammont, whom he had restored to his family.

The fatigues he had undergone in attending his grand daughter, ill of the small pox, produced the fatal disease which terminated

his glorious career. Till the 64th year of his age, the Prince had been rather a latitudinarian in religion. The exemplary death of his sister, the too famous Duchess de Longueville, effected his conversion, which was open and sincere; and he himself died a Christian, after having lived a hero. (1668.) To crown his earthly glory, his funeral oration was pronounced by the celebrated Bossuet; and is the *chef d'œuvre* of that great master. It is reprinted at the end of this work.

A work like this needs not our commendation. *Nam Cæsar summis oratoribus emulus*: says Tacitus.

Calendario e Notiziario della Corte di Napoli per l'Anno, 1804. Pp. 240. Naples. At the Royal Printing Office.

WE register this Court Guide of the city of Naples, because, in all probability, we shall have occasion hereafter to compare the information it contains with that of succeeding years: and the inferences to which such a comparison may give occasion, will be both interesting and useful.

The civil establishment of the court comprised 213 gentlemen of the chamber, of whom 150 were in employ, and 57 had the privilege of admission; 50 majordomos; 83 ladies of the court; 32 chaplains; a considerable number of chevaliers of the order of St. Januarius, St. Ferdinand, and St. Constantine, among which were 32 great crosses; 60 chevaliers by merit; 115 chevaliers by favour; 24 honorary, &c.

The literary establishments, and those for public instruction, were numerous. There was a society for preserving the statues, marbles, and other valuable articles of the royal museum: an economical society of the royal academy of sciences; an academy of design; a school of perspective; an establishment for sculptors; a school of engraving; a school of astronomy; a university for noble accomplishments; a university of general study at Altamara; a censorial college; a school for preparatory education; with various other institutions, not forgetting a military academy. There were also military colleges, hospitals for orphans, and other endowments.

In the ecclesiastical department, were the college of cardinals; the commanderies of the order of Malta, in the kingdom of Naples; those of St. Con-

stantine, at Rome, Parma, Placenza, &c. besides bishops, archbishops, &c.

The statistic report of this kingdom states the whole of its population at 4,963,502 inhabitants, among whom the ecclesiastics are 72,000, of all descriptions. In 1803, the number of deaths was 132,114; the number of births was to the whole population as 1 to 49; the number of persons in single life was to those who were married as 3 to 2; and the number of marriages was to the whole population as 1 to 88. Since 1789 the population of the Neapolitan states had increased 400,000 persons. The whole population of both kingdoms (Naples and Sicily) was not less than 6,619,083 persons. Comp. Panorama, Vol. I. p. 918.

Histoire Sacrée, ou Abrégé chronologique et raisonné des Livres Saints, à l'Usage de la Jeunesse. Sacred History, or chronological and methodical Abridgment of Holy Writ, for the Use of Youths. 2 vols. Price 12s. Didier and Tebbet. London, 1807.

THE title of this anonymous publication, sufficiently explains its object, which we think it fulfils. The author's intentions will be best understood by a transcript from his *avant-propos*.

We have considered the HOLY WRIT not only as a guide of faith and as a rule of conduct, but also as the most ancient and the most valuable historical monument [document] in our possession. Notwithstanding the jarring systems of the enemies of religion, still the truly learned critic seeks in the book of Moses, for the epochs of the foundation of the various empires; and the different branches of profane history diverge from his inspired writing, as from the parent stock: thus considering Moses as an historian, we have scrupulously followed and marked the date of events according to the best authorities. As youth advances in their historical studies, they will hereby be enabled to retrace their steps from more recent times to those early records of the world; and the study of sacred history will be found by them, what it really is, the true basis of all historical knowledge.

This performance appears well executed, and the style is correct; while the reflections are short and appropriate. We think the work deserves encouragement, as tending to promote the diffusion of an indispensable knowledge, and the acquisition of a language become necessary by its universality.

A Catechism for all the Churches in the French Empire, &c. translated from the Original, with an Introduction and Notes, by David Bogue. 12mo. pp. 215. Price 3s. 6d. Williams, and Smith, London, 1807.

EVERY man, says the British Constitution, shall be tried by his *peers*: and we willingly extend this privilege, even to aliens. — But, to find *peers* to Buonaparte, in matters of religion, may embarrass even a corps of reviewers. We first offered this work for opinion to the *Turks* of our corps; but they held down their hands, shook their long pipes, and their turbans, vehemently, and muttered confessions of faith; our Catholics, we found strongly disposed to whisper doubts of the Holy Father's infallibility, on this occasion; nor did they consider as either mighty or marvellous the honour of being thought *equal* to the eldest son of the church, as religionists. We had no better luck with our Protestants; for some of them thought the Emperor and King was incontrovertibly the *Man of Sin*, or the great Dragon, or the Beast, or something as bad; for how else could he be so intimate with the — of Babylon? While others observed, that after all the mending-lately bestowed on him, he still shewed more signs of perversion than of conversion; and truly! they were better employed. Thus we found, that the motto of Louis XIV. might be applied to his *quondam* successor; and that even in professions of faith, Buonaparte was "*nec pluribus impar*."

At length we determined that Mr. Bogue, the translator, who has also prefixed an Introduction to it, should himself review it for us. His Introduction is well adapted to the purpose, and we transcribe his sentiments, on this subject, with perfect conviction of their propriety. Mr. B. observes, of this Catechism, that

It is ushered into the world in due form and order, and with all the sanction of authority, spiritual and temporal, supreme and subordinate. First stands the Pope's Bull in the Latin tongue, (to which I suppose they would give the title of "*Certam et communam regulam*") executed by his *Legate a latere* at Paris, Cardinal Caprara. Then follows the Mandate of the Archbishop of Paris, to all the clergy of his diocese; and thirdly, there is that, which, in the turning of the world

upside down, from the lowest is become the highest part, and gives to the two former all the power and authority which they possess: —namely, the Emperor's decree.

The catechism, we are told, is chiefly taken from that of Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, a famous apologist for the church of Rome against the Protestants of his time, who flourished near 150 years ago. It consists of three parts, Doctrine, Morals, and Worship. But the last occupies more than one half of the room. The questions and answers, as to the literal part, are short and plain.

The doctrinal part of this catechism is as little exceptionable as any. The reader will here find the mere facts recorded in the sacred scriptures, and the general principles of Christianity arising out of them, and depending upon them: and in these the church of Rome is not unsound. The doctrine of the Trinity, the fall of man, original sin, the merits of Christ, the grace of the holy Spirit, the eternal misery of the wicked, and the eternal blessedness of the righteous, have all a place in this compilation. At the same time, it is exceedingly superficial, and does not give those clear and distinct ideas concerning most of the doctrines of the gospel, which it is of the first importance for the rising generation to acquire.

In the specification of *moral* obligations, the catechism presents to the reader many branches of Christian duty with great fairness and precision. This indeed is what we might reasonably expect; for so clear and reasonable are the duties which the word of God inculcates, that persons can hardly miss them, when it is really their purpose to exhibit them to view. But there is at the same time a great defect: the duties are all on one side.

Mr. B. proceeds to remark on the asserted *infallibility* of the church, on the distinction between *mortal* and *venial* sin, on the *seven sacraments*, on *transubstantiation*, on *confession*, *indulgences*, and *satisfaction*; all which articles find their places in this compendium.

The name of *purgatory* does not occur till the 146th page of the catechism: and then we are told, that those who do not make full satisfaction for their sins in this life, shall make it in another, by the most bitter sufferings. It is asked, where shall they endure them? and the answer is, *in purgatory*. This is all that is said about it. They seem half ashamed of it.

To every judicious reader, who attentively peruses this infallible work, it must appear astonishing that not a word is said of the obligations on Christians to read the *sacred scriptures*. That this was not the effect of carelessness and inattention, but of marked

design, who can doubt? And what can we think of a system which excludes the reading of the word of God?

The portion of *gross error*, which is in this catechism blended with the truth of Christianity, merits the serious consideration of every reader, and may justly excite an inquiry what the effects of this mixture are likely to be. There is here a considerable number of the fundamental principles of the gospel; and there is here likewise a considerable number of dangerous errors in direct opposition to these. What shall we say, will the effects of this mixture be?

Our author observes towards the close of this introduction, that:

If we judge from this specimen, the Romish religion in France is nearly the same as it was before the Revolution. Much of its pomp and splendour it has lost: its immense endowments and its princely revenues are all gone; but its spirit and its pretensions are still the same. The beast, a non-descript, has lost its sleekness and its corpulence, its fat and its size: scarcely any thing remains but skin and bones, and it is chained: but it growls as loud as it did before: and it barks as fiercely as in the days of old, at those who refuse to throw it a sop. Not one doctrine to which Protestants objected, is laid aside: not one opinion which was abhorred as anti-christian, is lopped off. From their pretensions of authority over Heaven and earth, and hell, the priests have not receded one hair's-breadth. They still claim the exclusive privilege of keeping the keys of the kingdom of Heaven, and insist upon it, that they can shut, and no man open; and open, and no man shut: and that they can perform all the wonders to which they even in former times laid claim. Old age has impaired none of their priestly powers; nor has poverty lessened their authority, dignity, or strength. It may likewise be noticed, that the St. Peter of the church of Rome still shuts his gates of Heaven against every Protestant; and heretics, for such is their name, can have no plea for mercy, but must be shut out from all hopes of salvation, while they continue without the pale of the Papal communion.

We shall give the most remarkable passage in this catechism, for the *edification* of our readers: we may safely trust the sentiments it contains to their own reflections.

Q. What are the duties of Christians in regard to the princes who govern them, and in particular, *what are our duties towards Napoleon the first, our emperor?*

A. Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and we owe in particular to Napoleon the first, our emperor, (1) *love*,

(2) *respect*, (3) *obedience*, (4) *fidelity*, (5) *military service*, and (6) *the tributes ordained for the preservation and the defence of the empire and of his throne*; besides, we owe him (7) *fervent prayers* for his safety, and for the temporal and spiritual prosperity of the state.

Q. Why are we bound to all these duties towards our emperor?

A. First, because God, who creates empires and who distributes them according to his will, in loading our emperor with favours, whether in peace or war, has established him our sovereign, has made him the minister of his power, and his image on earth. *To honour and serve our emperor is therefore to honour and serve God himself.* Secondly, because our Lord Jesus Christ, as well by his doctrine as by his example, has himself taught us what we owe to our sovereign; he was born under obedience to the decree of Cæsar Augustus; he paid the tribute prescribed; and in the same manner as he has commanded to render to God what belongs to God, he has also commanded to render to Cæsar what belongs to Cæsar.

Q. Are there not particular motives which ought to attach us more strongly to Napoleon the first, our emperor?

A. Yes: for he it is whom God has raised up in difficult circumstances to re-establish the public worship of our fathers' holy religion, and to be the protector of it: he has restored and preserved public order by his profound and active wisdom; he defends the state by his powerful arm, and is become the anointed of the Lord by the consecration which he has received from the chief Pontiff, head of the universal church.

Q. What are we to think of those who should fail in their duty towards the emperor?

A. According to St. Paul, the Apostle, they would resist the order established by God himself, and would render themselves worthy of *eternal damnation*.

La Grammaire en Vaudevilles, ou Lettres à Caroline sur la Grammaire Française, &c. Grammar taught by Songs, or Letters to Caroline. By M. Simonin. 12mo. fig. 2 fr. Barba, Paris.

The Harmonic Preceptor; a Didactic Poem, in Three Parts. By Mr. Dildin. Large 4to. pp. 149, with Plates, price 18s. Preston, London.

GREAT minds delight in extraordinary undertakings; they delight too in extraordinary expedients. Hence poets, "fired by no earthly muse," with ease

perform in verse, what sober prose finds extremely difficult, by precept upon precept. Sciences are of laborious acquisition, and some of them are not fully mastered after years of diligence, in the usual methods of learning, but if poetry has struck out a "royal road" to them, we wish the world joy of the discovery. Music, indeed, may plead a relation to rhythm and versification, yet the attempt to teach the principles of this art, in verse, might have deterred an ordinary genius: and though poetry cannot exist without grammar, yet the rudiments of grammar do not appear, at first sight, to form an irresistably attractive subject for poetry.

Ingenuity, however, will accomplish much: we remember the Daily Advertiser done into verse, with Proposals by the same learned author for versifying Burn's Justice, and harmonizing the Statutes at large. Unhappily the subscription did not fill; and thus was the world deprived of a work, which, to judge by its extent, could not fail of being immortal, and of immortalizing the author also, had he lived to finish it. We know, moreover, that the "Rights of Man" having met with opponents who thought it unintelligible in prose, was translated into verse, whereby what it wanted in reason was made up in rhyme. Rhyme too was employed to season the *Code Civil des François* to the taste of its readers; as the faculty gild the pill at which a patient might otherwise revolt. Parts of it were also adapted to some very pretty airs, and the nation for which it was intended might sing and dance the *Code Civil* in spite of those galling fetters the clank of which filled the world with apprehension, though Frenchmen affected neither to see nor to feel them. We must indeed acknowledge, that in lively *Vaudevilles* we are inferior to our neighbours. The "Cheats of London," whether in verse or prose, are unequal to *La Coutume de Paris* [versified.] In the instances before us, Mr. Dibdin slaves through his polysyllabic verses, while the Frenchman dances from tune to tune, and skips with glee, if not with grace, through all the parts of speech and every convenient conjugation and declension. The comparison is the less to Mr. Dibdin's advantage, because his subject might have afforded him the

happiest illustrations within itself. He could have been at no loss for *flats* among his own songs; neither for *sharps* had he any need to request assistance: he might have taught us *concord*s by an analysis of "God save the King;" and *unison* by "the Volunteer's march:" he might have instanced his *maestoso* in "Rule Britannia," and his *larghetto* in "Britons strike home." He might have enlivened his versification by a reel, or a jig; and gracefully have recovered his dignity by a minuet, and his gravity by a dead march. These advantages he has wholly foregone. Since then the Frenchman has availed himself of this idea with most dexterity, we shall first introduce a specimen or two from his work. He thus addresses his Caroline in his introduction to grammar.

AIR: *C'est à mon maître en l'art de plaire.*

La première leçon commence,
Tous nos arrangemens sont faits,
Et pour moi votre bienveillance
Se réglera sur vos progrès:
Pourtant, mon aimable écoleïère,
Je vois, avec quelque regret,
Qu'il faut, pour entrer en matière,
Vous renvoyer à l'Alphabet.

AIR: *Si Dorilas.*

Plus d'une science, ma chère,
S'apprendroit mieux, sans contredit;
Dans l'art d'aimer, dans l'art de plaire,
Souvent une leçon suffit.
Mais vous n'êtes pas, je le pense,
De ces belles qui tout d'un coup,
Dans une première séance,
Ont tout appris, et . . . savent tout.

AIR: *Nous sommes Précepteurs d'amour.*

Il ne convient guère entre nous,
A l'ardeur qui toujours m'anime;
Mais enfin, puisque c'est pour vous,
Je veux bien me mettre au régime.

AIR: *Avec vous sous le même toit.*

Si le régime est un pronom,
Avant le verbe l'on le place;
Ainsi, quand je dis sans façon,
Caroline, je vous embrasse,
Vous est régime, par cela
D'embrasser que je mets ensuite;
Mais, hélas! que n'êtes-vous là,
Je vous l'apprendrais bien plus vite.

AIR : Du vaudeville du Mameluck.

De ma campagne guerrière,
En terminant les travaux,
Du charmant Dieu de Cythère
Je rejoindrai les drapeaux.
Puissé-je, quand je m'obstine
A signaler ma valeur,
De la main de Caroline,
Recevoir la croix d'honneur !

AIR : Chantez, dansez.

Chantez, chantez, amusez-vous,
On ne peut travailler sans cesse ;
Et dans vos instans les plus doux,
Songez du moins à la tendresse . . .
Avec laquelle j'ai l'honneur
D'être Lien

Votre serviteur.

It must be acknowledged that critics in French poetry will not be altogether satisfied with these *chansons*. Boileau has said

Il faut même en chansons du bon sens et de l'art.

Good sense and art must e'en in songs prevail.

Yet there is a liveliness in the thought, the measure, and the adaptation, which relieves them from the imputation of heaviness.

The following extract from the *Code Civil des François* may amuse such of our readers as can derive amusement from the pangs and perplexities of a poor poet ; or from those unavoidable wry-faces which inevitably attend writers who undertake to *execute* in verse, what legislators have established in prose. There are more senses than one in which

The poet's eye in a fine *phrensy* rolls.

Had we sought through all the difficult books, and cramp subjects in our library for an uncouth passage to be converted into poetry, we might have exhausted our patience without finding one less promising than that which we subjoin.

We remember that Swift assures the Chinese Emperor, that he had studied those phrases and turns of expression, in his Tale of a Tub, which he foresaw would fall into the most graceful and harmonious arrangements of periods when translated into the language of the Imperial Court of China. With equal truth may the authors of this article protest, that they composed it expressly to suit the facilities of poetry.

Art. 184. " Tout mariage contracté
" en contravention des articles 144, 147,

" 161, 162, et 163, peut être attaqué
" soit par les époux eux-mêmes, soit par tous
" ceux qui y ont intérêt, soit par le ministère
" public."

Such is the text now for the version.

Tout mariage fait en contravention,
A chaque disposition
Que l'on a précédemment vue,
Et qui se trouve contenue
Dans les deux articles inscrits,
Nombre cent quarante-septième
Et cent quarante-quatrième ;
Dans les deux que l'on voit écrits
Nombre cent soixante-deuxième
Et nombre cent soixante-unième ;
Enfin, dans l'article compris

Sous le nombre appelé cent soixante-troisième,
Peut par les contractans être attaqué,
Ou par tous ceux ayant dans *cette affaire*
Un intérêt *ostensible et marqué*,
Ou par le *public ministère*.

We turn now to the Englishman, who certainly is not to be reckoned among our heavy writers ; but who has mingled amusement with his instructions, though not without some trouble to his muse, and a due share of perplexity to himself. He thus describes the musical notes. The reader will remember that in the work he has plates to refer to, for further information.

In table the first, as each note we're comparing,
Let us look at its name, and its length, and its bearing.

The first, called a *semibreve's* formed like a bowl,
Or the globe of the earth, somewhat flat at each pole.

The second a *minim*, a tail hanging from it,
Is circular too, much resembling a comet,
Except in the center the comet's tail rides,
While the tails of all *minims* are placed by their sides.

A *crotchet* one might for a *minim* mistake,
But that the whole circle's filled up and opaque.
A *quaver*, the fourth, like a *crotchet* would look,
Were it not that the tail is turned round like a crook.
Which, in the *half-quaver*, again we shall view,
Except that of crooks *semiquavers* have two.

The *demí*, or *half-semiquaver*, again,
Will clearer and clearer this doctrine explain ;
For the *half-semiquaver*, though less in degree,
Stead of one or two crooks is embellished with three ;

Which, to make of the subject a true Irish finish,
Shews the more we are adding, the more we diminish.

Mr. D illustrates the nature and office of flats and sharps by comparing them to the *grave* and the *acute* accents of lan-

guage: we subjoin the passage in which this is logically proved.

In pronunciation two accents we have,
One called the acute, and the other the grave;
The first bids the speaker on words lay a stress;
The latter, the tone of the voice to depress.
Now, nothing can be to my purpose more pat;
The musical marks, called the *sharp* and the *flat*,
Are exactly the same as these accents I quote;
For, while the *sharps* raise, the *flats* lower the note.

Yet, though both on the mind make an equal impression,

In language, the accents are used at discretion;
While the accents, in music, so true are and nice,
That their sure operation is fixed and precise.

Would the mind, that in turn loves to joy and deplore,

Make a *note* half a tone either higher or lower;
The last to effect the grave *flat* we require,
While the gay acute *sharp* makes it half a tone higher.

But as this, as in life, would cause strife without end,

Were it not for the medium of some sincere friend;
The *natural* steps in, to determine the cause;
And, adjusting all feuds, leaves the note where it was.

We perfectly agree with our author in the following reprehensions. He might have greatly enlarged the list. He well knows the musician, who, to express a rainbow, ranged his notes in an arch like semicircle. He knows, too, who valued Handel's *Arpeggio*, "All we like sheep," because it expressed with great accuracy the action of a number of sheep breaking out from a fold.

Music imitates too; but no instance is found that it ever could any thing mimic but sound; And ridiculous truly, and false, was their notion, Whoever believed it could imitate motion. Thus, it imitates nothing, as merely an art, For sound clearly makes of itself but a part; And music to utter contempt it will throw, When out of its province 'tis tempted to go.

Who does not to real compassion incline,
When music paints Generals passing the Rhine?
And shews various perils to horses and boats,
From huge falling cataracts, by twenty-six notes?*

* This attempt at musical expression, as it is called, was the production of Froberger, organist to the Emperor Ferdinand III. He represented the passage of Count Thurn over the Rhine, and the danger he and his army were in from twenty-six cataracts in an *allemande*.

Or, when planets are ordered to move in their spheres,
No longer the object of eyes, but of ears?*

Or, when every season, like Bayes's eclipse,
In a gig, or a hornpipe, or minuet trips;
When scarce with the heat of the dog-days we glow
Than the movement is changed, and we wad,
through the snow,

And music its hue is commanded to sing
Of summer, and winter, and autumn, and spring?†

When Handel's great strains lead us forward
through bogs,

To the buzzing of flies, and the hopping of frogs,
Or else, when in Joshua, commanded at will,
To music the sun is obliged to stand still;
While we notice the archness of every jeerer,
We blame the composer and pity the hearer.

'Tis thus virtuoso's, in love with distortions,
Find beauty in spiders, and grace in abortions;
For me,—let not persons of taste be offended,—
I think truth and nature can never be mended;
And when posture-masters I see bend and crawl,
And sidle like crabs, or roll up like a ball,
While every idea of pleasure they baulk,
I soften to pity, and wish they could walk.

Thus music to motion has little relation,
And of sounds, and those only, can boast imitation;

Nay, it even this likeness must cautiously measure,

For mimicry is but a second-hand pleasure.

For a joke on the would-be-universal imitation of music, see p. 524.

* The planets were attempted to be made into a kind of musical orrery, by Buxtehude, of Lubec, in a set of lessons for the harpsichord.

† Vivaldi, formerly a great favourite at country concerts, filled two books of concertos with the various effects of the seasons. I have heard these concertos, early in life; and, if the composer had not, like the painter who wrote under his sign, "This is the king's head," told us of the wonderful fact, his attempting this piece of folly would have remained a profound secret. I think, however, Geminiani ventured at the most heroic achievement, for he divested a long episode out of Tasso's *Jerusalem*, of its proper vehicle, *words*, and endeavoured to express its meaning by *notes*. But, to say the truth, we have had a tolerable specimen of this sort of impossible expression among the modern productions in this kingdom; which, however, must yield to the wonderful execution of the Abbé de Vogler; who, in performing on the organ, that Englishmen might be properly astonished, not only played in the usual way with his fingers, but he heightened his performance by the assistance of his feet and his elbows.

The Etymological Organic Reasoner, with one Sheet of the Gothic Gospel of St. Matthew, and another of the Saxon Durham Book in Roman Characters; and a literal English Lesson. By the Rev. S. Henshall, M.A. Rector of Stratford Bow. No. I. price 2s. White, London, 1807.

THE design of the author, is to publish eighteen such numbers in the space of two years; which, on a tolerably accurate calculation, will comprehend the whole of the Gothic gospels and the corresponding Saxon, from the Durham and Rushworth Manuscripts. The numbers will be arranged and printed in such a manner, that when completed they will form three separate moderate sized volumes. To the Gothic fragments and Saxon MSS. an historical introduction of these precious relics, and a fac-simile, will be added.

Mr. Henshall has long cultivated the almost neglected field of the Gothic, Saxon, and the cognate northern languages. We have seen, now some years ago, his translation of a portion of *Domesday-book*, in which his perfect acquaintance with the latinized Anglo-Saxon terms occurring in that invaluable record at once surprized and informed us. Mr. Astle availed himself of this gentleman's skill in Saxon lore to interpret Alfred's will; and his specimen of *St. Matthew's Gospel* in six columns, giving the parallel passages of the *Rushworth Gloss*, the *Durham-book*, the *Saxon of Junius*, *Wicliffe's Translation*, the *German of Luther*, and a *literal Rendering* by Mr. H. himself, (the Gothic version was not printed in the specimen) excited our deep regret that he met with encouragement inadequate to his deserts. When a professor of the Saxon Tongue was to be chosen by the University of Oxford, on the foundation of Rawlinson, party opposed but too successfully the election of Mr. Henshaw: and afterwards, when our author published the first fruits of his laborious researches, party still pursued him; nor did he experience a liberal treatment from the then reviewers. This will account for occasional bursts of vehemence which appear in the number before us. We can make great allowance for the effect of his irritated feelings, but; at the same time, we think Mr. H. descends too low when his indignation becomes invective. Let him

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communicate to the public the result of his studies, unalloyed with base matter, and the applauses of the world will soon overpower the unmerited abuse of a few prejudiced individuals.

Mr. Henshall investigates the radical tongues of Europe, *not through the medium of a Latin dictionary*; he is not content with *parroting* a language; he reads not like a school-boy recently transplanted into a university; but he studies them as a philosopher; recognizes in them those principles which pervade all languages; principles which form the bones and sinews of speech, and exercising his *organs of enunciation* upon them, he traces affinities between all tongues, which they who read with the *eye* only cannot possibly discern.

The incontrovertible principle on which I establish all my philological inquiries, is this, that the universal and original language of human creatures is coeval with the formation of man, extensive as the habitable earth, and can never be thoroughly changed; till his organic powers of speech are enfeebled or destroyed; though the pronunciation may vary in consequence of the effects of climate, the tension, or relaxation, of the members used, or habitually exerted.

We know that our author differs from Mr. Tooke in politics, but he gives him due praise for his consummate philological skill. He gives the very learned and most ingenious Mr. Whiter also considerable commendation; yet he observes,

When Mr. Whiter concludes that "the same elements will continue to preserve the same meanings through every period of succeeding generations," I am indeed astonished, that he should ascribe such an authenticated universal principle to "a system formed without contrivance, and propagated without design—the baseless fabric, as it might seem, of chance and of change;" (*Etymol. Mag.* p. 507.) when it is so palpably, "concreated with our first parents," (*Wilkins*) coeval with the formation of man, dependent on the structure of the human organs, and therefore formed by the same *eternal and immutable wisdom*, that made the image of God.

To convince any man of an active, intelligent, comprehensive mind, and *not far* prejudiced by the common theory of languages; that throughout *all languages* there is a *resemblance* in the sound, and an affinity of ideas, attached to the tones produced by the exertions of the same organic powers of human speech, let him try the experiment upon himself, and practise a few specimens; I

S

mean, let him pursue the wise direction of an almost divinely inspired collect of our Church; let him *try*, then *hear*, then *read*, then *mark*, then *learn*, then inwardly *digest* his thoughts.*

A, the *first* letter of the alphabet in all languages, and the *first*, because, from the construction of the organs of speech, it must be *first* uttered, varies in English pronunciation as it is combined with letters, or sounds, produced by the different members, the *tongue*, the *lips*, the *palate*, the *throat*, the *teeth*; or such as are of the *serpentine* description, or hissing letters; the currish R, or hurrying letter; the ZASTZERASH of the Jews; it is the natural sound emitted by human beings, when the tongue is at the greatest distance from the palate, and no organ of pronunciation is exerted: it is the *breathing* of the smith of Shakespeare, "with open mouth swallowing a taylor's news." O is the same *breathing*, with a compressed, contracted, or pursed mouth; OU is the same breathing with the lips downward; U with the lower lip elevated, and an impulse of the tongue. The lower the tongue, the deeper and rougher the tone, the nearer it approximates the palate, the higher and softer, from AU to A *lenis*; when the tongue is a little convex towards the palate, E is sounded; when more convex, I; till we get the *high guttural palatinate* Y.

This quotation will give our readers a tolerable idea of Mr. Henshall's *organic reasoning*; his petulant paragraphs we have already censured. One curious note we transcribe, because it will amuse the general reader, and the doctrine contained in it is undoubtedly true.

I cannot here resist the tempting opportunity of illustrating the doctrine of sounds. The select vestrymen of the parish of Christchurch, Middlesex (*Spital-fields*), resolved to increase the number of bells from eight to ten, to have the best chimes in London. When these *wise-acres* (equally skilled in music with the ——— Critics) were assembled, they further resolved that the additional bells should be lower or deeper than the *tenor* or the *great bell*. An intelligent scientific gentleman (Mr. John Lesouef) stated to them that this was impossible, that it was contrary not only to every principle of music, but to *nature*. The general language of the room was, *Oh! he's a fidler, he know any thing about bells!* and the result was that they voted two

* This noble, strong-minded climax, never surpassed in composition, was first pointed out to me by my Oxford tutor, and valued friend, the Reverend Dr. Breithwaite, late rector of Stepney, a sound divine, an able scholar, and orthodox churchman.

lower bells, and a deputation to wait on Mr. Mears the bell-founder, to put their plan into execution. At the next vestry their deputies reported that they had waited on Mr. Mears, who informed that he could not cast two *lower* bells, but should be glad to cast them two higher. The general cry then was, *Oh! he's a fool*, he knows nothing about his business, send down to the man at *Birmingham*. To the man at Birmingham they sent, who also informed them, to their great dissatisfaction, that it was impossible; and therefore they ordered two higher bells, where an additional semitone could be formed agreeably to the *scale of nature*. That many pretended *cognoscenti* in music are totally ignorant of such *natural principles*, I am convinced; for I have heard a lady play *gracefully* a lesson of Clementi's, who knew nothing about it; but how a man, of an investigating mind, can see the black keys of a harpsichord, and observe the two *hiatuses* in the rows of every octave, and not ask himself *why*, is to me unaccountable.

Curiosity alone is not all that may be gratified in a work like that of which the number before us is a specimen. We daily use words, of which it is desirable to ascertain the ancient acceptation, in order that we may discover the effect of time on our language, and that we may justly appreciate their import. It is well known to all scholars, that the flux of language is among the most vexatious perplexities of study, yet it must be endured, because it is one of the ways to knowledge.

We desire, also, to pay a tribute of respect to that very great acuteness with which Mr. H. has selected from modern language proper words to represent the ancient. The labour of this must have been immense. Mr. H's version is printed in opposite pages, which is not amiss, but we hope he will excuse us if we prefer the interlineary manner; since this shews more explicitly the relations of the terms; it promotes also the advances of a student, and it detects omissions, as we have taken the liberty to shew by our bracketed insertions in the following extract.

Need we recommend the patronage of such a work to the learned and wealthy among us?

We shall first give a specimen of the "Gothic Gospel through Matthew." *Codex Argenteus Upsal.*

Matthew, Chap. V. verses 41, 42, 43, 44.

Jah gabai hwas thuk ananauthjai rasta
Yea give whoso thee on-on-to-go rest
aina, gaggais mith imma twos.
one, gang with him two.

Thamma bidjandin thuk, gibais; jah
Them begging thee, give; yea
thamma wiljandin af thus leihwan, sis ni
them willing of thee loanen, be not
uswandjais.
averting.

Hausideduth thatei cwithan ist, frijos
Hear-did-you-do that quothen is it, fri-nd
nehw undjan theimana, jah fiais fiand
nigh-unto-one thine, yea foe fiend
theimana.
thine.

Aththan ik cwitha izwis, frigoth figands
But then I quoth you, friends fiends
izwarans, thiuthjaith thans wrikandans izwis,
youren, good-doeth them wreaking you,
waila taujaith thaim hatjandam izwis, jah
well doeth them hating you, yea
bidjaith bi thans ushriutandans izwis.
beggeth for them threaten-doing you.

The following is the Saxon "Gospel
thorough Mathew:" the various readings
in italics are the *Rushworth Gloss*, the
words marked F. are from Fox's edition of
the Saxon gospels, 1571.

& se the (& suachna), swa hwa swa
And he that—and whoso—[so] who so
thee genedes, nede, & gethreas, mille
thee needs go, need, and urgeth does, (mille
strædena, thusend steppan, geong mith
strides) a thousand steps, gang with
him othra tuege.
him other two thousand. F.

Se, all, the guieith, bidde, fro^a the
He, all, that requesteth, begs, from thee
sel, sele, him, & thæm, nedende (&
loose, him, and them needing and
thæm threatende), the will on borg nioma
them intreating, that will on borrow nim
at thee, huerfa, thee ne acerre, ne bes
at thee, avert, thee not nor recur, not go
ungæthwere.
thwart.

Geherde ge forthon acneden is, gegeherdun
Ye heard for that quothen is, [ye heard
that cworden was, lufa thone nests,
that quothen] was, love [the one] highest
nestin, thinne, & mithlætho (fro^a latho)
next, thine, and with loath (from loath)
& hate, hæfe thu fiond, fynd, F.
and hate, have [thou] fiend (fiend)
thinne.
thine.

An Account of the Diseases of India, as
they appeared in the English Fleet, and in
the Naval Hospital at Madras in 1782 and
1783; with Observations on Ulcers, and
the Hospital Sores of that Country, &c. &c.
to which is prefixed, a View of the Diseases
on an Expedition, and Passage of a Fleet
and Armament to India in 1781. By
Charles Curtis, formerly Surgeon of the
Medea Frigate. J. Murray, London, 1807,
Svo. p. 283. Price 6s.

THE union of talents and experience
in the diseases of the East and West In-
dies is so rare, that notwithstanding the
multitude of publications on such subjects
which are continually appearing, but little
improvement has been made during many
years either in the management or pre-
vention of the diseases, which so suddenly
beset and destroy the unfortunate visitors
of those regions.

It would have been highly gratifying to
us if the publication under our inspection
had entitled its author to that unqualified
applause, which affords equal pleasure to
the giver and the receiver. But, the
style and manner of the performance, the
carelessness of the language, and the total
want of that systematic and compre-
hensive development of pathology which
can alone improve the rational practice
of physic, much overbalances the satis-
faction which a reader might otherwise
derive from the perusal of an evidently
faithful journal.

Could it have been supposed that a
written account of the diseases of India,
extremely important both from their
rapidly destructive power, and the ravages
which they too often produce among the
brave and heroic defenders of British pro-
perty, should have remained during twen-
ty-five years in the bureau of its author? or,
that when published, after such an inter-
val, it should be found destitute of com-
mon literary correctness?

The following quotation will give a
favourable specimen of the composition
in this performance, and at the same
time exhibit a view of its miscellaneous
character—partly medical, partly descrip-
tive.

Baffling winds, calms, and currents, kept
the fleet for several days from reaching the
anchoring-ground, with the island (Johanna)
constantly in view; and during these melan-

choly days, the ships were every now and then committing to the deep some unfortunate scorbutic, whom a few cocoa-nuts and the tropical fruits, which were there in great plenty, might have preserved to reach the much wished-for shore.

The green and picturesque appearance of this island affords a prospect peculiarly interesting to every ship's company, who have been any length of time at sea. To us (at least to all our scorbutics), it presented something more. To them, it was like the hope of a resurrection from the dead: and in fact, one third of all the troops and ship's companies were transported to its shores in a condition, in which a jolt, or a rude motion, was in danger almost to prevent their ever reaching them; and above another third more than half way to the same condition.

This, like most of the tropical isles, is composed of high land, running towards the centre in irregular ridges: the hills covered to the top with the green and spreading cocoa-nut trees: some level land upon the shores, and deep and narrow valleys running backwards with more or less ascent among the hills. On the north side, where the fleet anchored, a border of low land, in some places of half a mile or more in breadth, forms the beach; while there, fresh water streams, of considerable size, furnish easy and plentiful supplies of that article for any fleet. Farther back the land begins to rise in irregular elevations, and the vallies, which are wide and open to the beach, narrow and contract as they recede from it, and soon begin to be covered with shrubs, bushes, and underwood. The cocoa tree seems to thrive alike in the heights, in the island, from the top of the highest hills, to within a few yards of the beach. On the banks of the middle rivulet, among the cocoa-tree groves, but where there is a firm and deep sward, and on the open beach near it, the greatest number of the ships pitched their sick tents, while some of the troops, the 98th and 42d regiments, went farther back into the opening of the valley, and towards the rising grounds, further off from the reach of the sea breeze, where there were fewer trees, but more bushes and underwood. Frequent rains which fell out before we left the place, rendered their situation still more unfavourable, from the ground, being more imperfectly dried, while near the shore, or among the cocoa groves, there was much more ventilation, and a much better shade from the excessive heats. From the last report on the 20th August, 1781, to our reaching this place, the deaths at sea were ten soldiers and one seaman. Symptoms of scurvy, or rather of scorbutic diathesis, became more and more apparent, and the patient went off in a low oppressed wasted state some days before we reached this. All the soldiers,

except one, (who died from drinking spirits to excess) were affected with scurvy, combined with cachexy, and died in the same way. P. 21, 22, 23.

It is to be lamented that the remarks which follow are so very incorrectly expressed.

With regard to sea scurvy, reports and accounts have been published, as if this had been cured at sea, by lime or citron juice, lemon rob, nitre dissolved in vinegar, nitric acid, &c. all which I would suspect to be rather something of the hyperbolical. But there is a plan for this purpose recommended by a Mr. Young of the Navy, which, from its practicability and perfect conformity to known and established principles, is highly deserving of attention, and of being recorded in such a publication as this. It proceeds upon the well known fact that nothing more is necessary for the cure of this disease in any situation where there is a tolerably pure air, than,—not dead and dried, but fresh vegetable diet, greens or roots, in sufficient quantity. To be sure we cannot have a kitchen garden at sea, and a short and scanty crop of greens can only be raised on board a ship; but beans, and peas, and barley and other seeds can be carried in any quantity; and as Mr. Young has very justly stated, any kind of esculent seeds brought under the maling or vegetating process, are converted into the state of a growing plant, with the vital principle in full activity throughout the germ and pulp: and if eaten in this state, without any sort of preparation, except that of separating or rejecting the husks, cannot fail to supply precisely what is wanted for the cure of scurvy, viz. fresh vegetable chyle. P. 41, 42.

The author has devoted a small portion of his work to the consideration of a peculiarly distressing, and often fatal, disease, called the *mort de chien*; which he describes as arising commonly in the night, with a watery purging and tenesmus, but little or no griping.

These symptoms continued during some hours before the occurrence of spasms. Great weakness soon followed, coldness of the extremities, a remarkable paleness, sinking and lividity of the whole countenance.—In a short time the spasms began to affect the muscles of the thighs, abdomen and thorax, and lastly they passed to those of the arms, hands and fingers. The affection is not as in tetanus, confined to a single muscle, or to a certain class of muscles only. Neither does it, as in the spasmus clonicus, move and agitate the members.—It passes from one set to another; from those of the inferior extremity to those on the upper parts, leaving the former free.—As the disease proceeded,

the countenance became more and more pale, wan and dejected; the eyes became sunk, hollow, and surrounded with a livid circle. The pulse became more feeble: but so long as it could be felt it was but little altered in frequency. The tongue was generally white, and more or less furred towards the root; and the patients had great thirst or rather a strong desire for cold drinks; but there was no head-ach or affection of the sensorium commune throughout.

The coldness of the extremities, which was perceptible from the very first, continued to increase, and spread over the whole body, but with no moisture on the skin, till the severity of the pain and spasms forced out a clammy sweat, which soon became profuse. The nails of the fingers became livid, and bent inwards; the skin of the palms became white, bleached, and wrinkled up into folds, as if long soaked in cold water; the effect no doubt of the profuse cold sweat.

All this while the purging continued frequent.—In many, the stomach became at last so irritable, that nothing could be got to rest upon it; but every thing that was drank, was spouted up immediately.

The countenance and extremities became livid; the pulsations of the heart more quick, frequent, and feeble, [the author just before remarked that it was but little altered in frequency] the breathing began to become laborious and panting, and, in fine, the whole powers of life fell under such a great and speedy collapse as to be soon beyond the power of recovery. The motion of the heart so long as it could be felt became more and more quick and irregular; till death came at last to the relief of the miserable sufferer.

In the treatment of this disease, Mr. C. appears to have relied principally on the use of opium, counteracting its astringency by cathartic medicines: and accompanying it with the use of the warm bath. P. 61, 62.

Three or four pages on tetanus are closed with the following melancholy remark.

Not one patient (out of 40 or 50) recovered, except in a slight case formerly mentioned; nor did any of our remedies produce the smallest mitigation or seem to retard even the progress of the disease.

Since the date of these minutes, the public have been favoured with a luminous and elaborate treatise on the diseases and climate of the West Indies, by Dr. Moseley of Chelsea, which, as Mr. Cyrtis did not publish his observations until the present year, it is somewhat extraordinary that he should not have even so much

as noticed: for there is a degree of propriety in being acquainted with the improvements of those branches of science to which a writer directs his attention, which is highly requisite, and a degree of courtesy and liberality in mentioning them, which is equally becoming and commendable.

The Child's Monitor; or, Parental Instruction, by John Hornsley. 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 240. Price 3s. 6d. Longman, and Co. London, 1807.

WHEN this work was sent to us for inspection, three lovely children of that age, the capacity of which it is intended to suit, were playing in the room. A thought immediately struck us, to try its effects on their tender minds, and to avail ourselves of their natural criticism. Without seeming to take any notice of their play, we therefore began reading aloud; we had not proceeded far, when the toys were spontaneously laid aside, and the pretty inquisitors came pressing close round us eager to catch every word. "Oh! what a pretty book that is! it is all true, is it not? Pray give it to us: we will take great care of it, indeed we will, and read it with you every morning." After answering what seemed fit to these pressing questions, often repeated, we entered with them into an examination of some of the chapters, and we remained satisfied, that the sensible *Monitor* had completely succeeded in interesting his young pupils, by offering them pleasing instruction within their comprehension. So natural indeed are the reflections he suggests; so well is the morality adapted to the lesson; that, in the course of the trial, we often had the pleasure of seeing our young friends anticipate the author's conclusions.

A more sedate perusal of the work did but confirm the good opinion we had formed of it from the unsophisticated judgment of our young critics. It is divided into five parts; the first and second contain miscellaneous instructions, on the usual occurrences of infancy; and a natural history of birds and quadrupeds. The third, following the pupils' progresses, rises from the brute creation to the contemplation of more sublime objects, and from juvenile instructions to manly pre-

cepts. The fourth and fifth are technical, and contain rules for punctuation, directions for reading with propriety, for spelling, and dividing words into proper syllables: with appropriate and well chosen examples.

As we have lately witnessed many attempts to revive among us the mania of teaching children by means of fables, wherein speaking animals are made to convey what the authors are pleased to call useful lessons and sound morality, we shall give by way of comparison a specimen of Mr. Hornsley's method of instructing his pupils, by reflections on the *real* manners of animals: the description of the beaver follows in his work that of the badger and of the sloth; and the *Monitor* says to the child:

I wish, my love, I could have the satisfaction to believe that all the human race were as judicious and as provident as the beaver, but alas! the knowledge which I have of mankind, compels me to say, that it is probable, there are thousands and tens of thousands, as destitute of ingenuity and industry as the badger and the sloth.

It is much to be lamented, that many indolent beings pass away their nights in swearing, drinking, gaming, singing, and dancing, and the precious hours of the morning, they sleep or yawn away in bed: and when reluctant and feeble resolution lifts their disordered heads from their pillows, they are often incapable of the least exertion, though perhaps hunger calls loudly for it: but should it not call on behalf of themselves, it may for their hapless wives and children: whose pittance, with such providers, must, at the best, be scanty indeed. What a lesson those profligate husbands and fathers might learn from the harmless, provident, and diligent, beaver!

The advantage of this method is too obvious to need any comment: while the palpable grossness of the fiction in fables does away the possibility of illusion and banishes all interest. Too often also the inferences children draw from them are far from having a beneficial tendency; they fill young people's heads with idle stories, and unmeaning words, instead of storing their minds with the elements of useful knowledge.

We shall conclude this article by recommending the *Child's Monitor* as an assistant to parents, and a pleasing director to children.

Sur la Danse, ou les Dieux de l'Opéra;
or Dancing, or the Gods of the Opera; an
Epic Poem, in Six Books. By M. Berchoux. Paris, 1806.

THE rivalry of two dancers of the French opera, Vestris and Duport, is a serious affair for our volatile neighbours, and engrosses much more of their attention than even the fate of their armies. Mr. Berchoux, already known by the pleasing poem of *La Gastronomie*, building his hopes of success on the general interest produced by the mighty quarrel, has made it the subject of an epic poem in six cantos.

It is not our intention to analyse this airy production, which contains some wit and gaiety, with a large proportion of absurdities, stale jokes, and impertinences; among which the most prominent is Vestris's journey to London, and the indecent fiction of his interview with her M, for which, to do the French critics justice, Mr. B. has been severely rebuked by them. They might, indeed, have rebuked Mr. B. for sundry other improprieties; and some have gone so far as to advise *Le Dieu de la Danse*, as old Vestris calls his son, to employ his natural weapons, his feet and his hands, in wreaking revenge on the *impious* transgressor. These weapons are, no doubt, convenient as being always in readiness, yet the fastidious, in matters of honour, at least, demand recourse to arms of more formidable report.

We have mentioned this poem only to have an opportunity of amusing our readers with a whimsical anecdote, which the author has inserted in a note, on the expressive powers of music.

I was one day, says he, disputing on this subject with a friend of mine, who is an excellent musician, and plays on all sorts of instruments. He maintained that music is an art which surpasses all others in its power of imitation; that it conveys meaning full as well as words; that it can express every thing, and that, as for himself, he should not be at a loss should he ever become dumb, for with his different instruments he could easily make himself understood even by people of the dullest intelligence. After long arguing on this point, I proposed a wager which he immediately accepted. We went together to a *restaurateur*, he taking with him his violin, his bassoon, and his clarinet. I told the waiters not to be startled at what they were

going to see; it was a wager. We sat down at table; I called for the bill of fare, and requested my friend to begin his music, and to order a soup with *puree* and toast for two. He took his violin and performed a great variety of very pretty musical passages, sometimes slow, sometimes quick, according as he thought it necessary for imitation. The waiter stood listening with a silly look without budging a foot. My friend, finding that he could not be understood, told me that music had no notes to express *puree* with toast, but that he would, with my permission, call for plain beef. Let us see plain beef, says I, this will be much clearer. He then took his clarinet, and afterwards his bassoon, in which he kept blowing most manfully, trying to imitate the bellowing of the ox. The waiter still remained like a statue, and brought no more beef than soup. My musician attempted afterwards to imitate the bleating of sheep, and of lambs; the bellowing of the calf; and, at length, the crowing of the cock, &c. meaning to call for chops, cutlets, and fowls. He then played a pretty little tune, which he accompanied with many graceful motions of the head and flourishes in the Italian style; I immediately understood that he wanted *macaroni*, but the barbarous waiter remained as deaf as before, and in the mean time we were fasting. I told my friend, who was a little out of countenance, that with his art of imitation we were running the risk of having no dinner, and I begged of him to own, at least, that music could not make a man understood in the most necessary operation of life; I then offered to lay a wager that in many other occurrences its powers of imitation would fail likewise. It was growing late, my virtuoso was as hungry as myself. I then called for a pencil and a slip of paper; I made a drawing of *puree* and toast, chops, plain beef, beef *à la mode*, &c. and in an instant dinner was served.

We omit the obvious reflections this adventure suggests to our author, on the insufficiency of music, however pleasing in itself, as an art of imitation; we cannot help noticing, however, that although the French deride all the pretensions of the English to musical sensibility, yet, had such a wager taken place among us, no truly English born waiter could have been insensible to the tune of "the Roast Beef of Old England:" the appeal would have been too forcible to have been resisted. Perhaps too, a classical French waiter, recollecting the wish of the *bon Henry IV.*, might have brought *la poule au pot* had the luckless musician played the tune sacred to the memory of that formerly (and still?) beloved monarch.

Istoritcheskoe isobrachenie Grusii we politichuskom, Zerkownom i utchebnom cia sostoiannie &c.—Historical, Political, Ecclesiastical, and Literary Picture of Georgia; by Eugenius, Archimandrite of the Convent of St. Alexander Newskoy. Moscow, 1806.

In several official communications of a late date, the French Government has insisted on the political importance of the *agrandissement* of the Russian Empire on the side of Mount Caucasus. Georgia transformed into a Russian government; the untameable nations of Caucasus, surrounded on all sides by the Muscovite armies; Persia and Asiatic Turkey deprived of their natural barrier; such are the objects which the French statesman considers, when he turns his eyes toward Caucasus. It is possible too, that Georgia may become the seat of war, if the instigation of French policy succeeds in the Court of Persia. (Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 306.) But the geographer, the naturalist, the historian; and the man of letters, discover many other objects of interest; a country of great and singular features, various people of great antiquity, languages little known, in short, a vast career opened to learned researches. All these considerations lead us to desire an acquaintance with the political, moral, and natural picture of these countries.

Mount Caucasus stands like an immense wall, between the Black Sea and the Caspian; its length is more than 150 leagues; its breadth varies from twenty-five to seventy leagues. The middle of this chain rises to heights which are constantly covered with glaciers; or white with perpetual snows. It is nevertheless affirmed, that the Elburz, the highest summit of Caucasus, is only 5,400 feet in elevation above the level of the Black Sea. To the south, Caucasus is united with the numerous branches of Mount Taurus, which run throughout Western Asia: to the north it terminates almost abruptly on the vast plains where the Samatians anciently wandered, and where now the Cozaks and Kalmucks ramble. To the east, it gradually diminishes in height as it approaches the Caspian Sea; to the west, it suddenly enters the Pontus Euxinus. Two passages only open to the armies of Europe and of Asia, this barrier, which otherwise had excluded them for ever from each other. One of these is toward the sources of the Tereck, this is the famous Caspian Gate of the ancients; it is a passage extremely narrow, and as if formed by a breach in the rocks; the other

is the defile at Derbent, an interval between the foot of the mountains and the Caspian Sea. It is the Albanian or Caspian Way of the ancients.

The Medes, the Persians, the Romans, considered Caucasus as being the rampart of the civilized world against the irruptions of the barbarous hordes; but neither the iron gates of which Pliny speaks, nor the wall built by the sagacious Nou Schirvan, have been able to confine for any length of time the Huns and the Tatars. The Caucasian Isthmus is too extensive to be guarded unless by a very numerous army. This isthmus offers the most lively interest to historians of nature, and of the human race. Among the innumerable tribes of men which inhabit it, some are remains of those Asiatic hordes, which so often passed and repassed these mountains; others are original tribes whose antiquity extends to the first associations of mankind. Their infinitely varied phraseology cannot but retain much of the elementary principles of their primitive languages; their physiognomy itself recalls the most noble character of that great Japhetic race, of which the Persians, the Greeks, the Slavonians, the Goths, the Germans, and the Celts, are but branches of a later date. Caucasus might be the original country of all the domestic animals, and all the plants cultivated in Europe and in Asia; for all the climates of both are combined here. Here are intermixed the charms and the horrors of nature; often a single hill separates spring from winter, as it does Europe from Asia. In the centre of this range, bears, wolves, jackals, ermines, hares, the ibex of Caucasus, the argali, with eagles and vultures, inhabit amidst craggy rocks, and eternal snows. Winter begins in September, and lasts sometimes till the middle of May. Then a short, but ardent summer, draws up the sap in the birches, the elms, the willows, which for a few weeks and no longer, mingle their cheerful foliage with the dark greens of pines and firs. The industrious Ossetes, the Kistinzes, and other inhabitants of this mountainous region, cultivate corn and tobacco in the valleys; they possess numerous flocks and orchards extremely well kept. Some tribes manufacture fire-arms, sabres, and knives; also, woollen stuffs, even for exportation. The Ossetes, masters of the Caucasian Gate, are employed as guides and drivers by Armenian, Persian, and Turkish dealers. All these mountaineers, confident in the strength of their country, acknowledge the dominion of Russia in a very precarious manner.

At the western foot of Caucasus dwell the Awhasses; along the Black Sea, and more westerly towards the Cimmerian Bosphorus, the Tzeques reside. They are of the Circassian race. These warlike people acknowledge the supremacy of the Ottoman Porte; but the

Russians have drawn them almost all over to their party. They cultivate summer wheat, millet, and barley; they have many flocks; hydromel is their beverage. It is believed that the Turks still occupy the fortress and part of Anapocia. According to treaties, the Russian empire should be bounded by the river of Kuban, the name of which is sometimes given to all this country; but the Russian influence is not limited by this river.

The northern declivities of Caucasus are occupied by the Circassians, who inhabit the districts called great and little Cabardie. The manners of this people have been often described, their bravery still maintains their independence almost intire; they may raise as many as 9,000 men, well armed with muskets, lances, and sabres. "The irregular troops of Russia," says our author, do not choose to encounter them. Their country is exposed to the northerly winds; vegetation is there extremely luxuriant; the forests produce oaks, elms and beeches; but this pastoral and wandering people cultivate only millet. Their numerous bee-hives travel with them. Circassian horses are bought by the Russians at any price.

On the river Terek, and towards its mouth, are the districts occupied by the Kumuzkes Tatars, an industrious people who plant cotton, and build pretty houses of several stories. The Armenians settled among them, cultivate the vine, and breed silk-worms. They are governed by sheiks or princes; some of which acknowledge the Russian supremacy. The two princes of Endery and Aksai are the most decided patrons of robberies, and dealings in slaves. The whole eastern side of Caucasus is composed of mountains rising one above another. So that, to naked rocks, or at most, rocks covered with moss, succeed forests of oaks, poplars, aspen-trees, and mulberry-trees; lower down, vines, apple-trees, apricot-trees, almond-trees, fig-trees, and pomegranates, mingle indiscriminately their flowers and their fruits. This climate is soft, but extremely humid. During winter, houses are demolished by the snow: in spring, all is inundated by long and violent rains.

Here, in the province of Daghestan, are the territories of a prince or chan named Schamkal, who is able to raise 10,000 men, and who acknowledges in appearance only the supremacy of Persia. His capital, Tarku, is a trading town. At some distance is the city of Kubascha, under the protection of another chan; the inhabitants of this city call themselves Franks or Europeans, and possibly are descendants from the Genoese. They have embraced the Mahometan faith; they manufacture excellent fire-arms and sabres, cast brass cannon, and strike the coins of Turkey and Persia. A part of the province of Daghestan takes the name of Lesguistan, after the savage

and untameable Lesguis, a people whose dialect seems to resemble that of the inlanders. These robbers carry off from Georgia the inhabitants of whole villages, men, women, and children; from the tops of their inaccessible rocks they defy the Russians and Cozaks. Adjacent to the Lesguis dwell the famous Huns-Avares, who in the sixth and seventh centuries made Europe tremble. In the towns of this ferocious people, there reigns nevertheless a certain degree of industry; shawls and woolen stuffs of great beauty are made here; it seems that they employ on such productions those of their slaves which they have not been able to sell for the seraglios of Persia and Turkey. Daghestan, that is to say the mountainous country, loses itself at length in fertile and pleasant hills, surrounded next the sea by sandy or clayey plains, where naphtha, a kind of liquid bitumen rises in numerous sources from the earth. In Schirwan, a province of Persia, now invaded by the Russians, the olive, the platane, and the laurel grow abundantly.

Having examined the centre, the west, the north, and the east of the Caucasian isthmus, let us direct our attention towards the south; here the two Georgias extend; one is distinguished as high, or eastern, or Persian, now Russian; the other as low, western, or Turkish. One of the mountainous branches of Caucasus divides them. In upper Georgia rises that impetuous river which still retains the name of Cyrus, because it was supposed to resemble that hero in character. Lower Georgia is watered by the Phasis, which brings down particles of gold; these the inhabitants gather by stretching fleeces across the current; whence originated the fable of the golden fleece, which prompted the Argonautic expedition. We are now therefore on classic ground; and if we have any doubts as to the accuracy of the praises which the Russian Archimandrite bestows on the beauty and fertility of this country, we have only to read Hippocrates and Strabo, to be convinced that the character of these climates was the same two thousand years ago.

The rocks of Caucasus shelter all these southern valleys from the frozen gales of the north; the mountains of Armenia prevent the scorching winds of Mesopotamia from penetrating so far as here; so that the air would be throughout constantly serene and temperate, were it not sometimes infected by exhalations from numerous marshes; but this injurious effect will disappear, when the inhabitants shall exercise sufficient industry to controul the courses of the rivers, and to confine their waters, to diminish the forests, and to bring under cultivation the whole of that rich territory which they hold from nature. The incessant rains, and the great heats which prevail in Lower Georgia, render this country less healthful than Upper Georgia; but these

causes produce an excessive fertility in the soil.

All the mountains of Georgia are clothed with woods. By the side of cypresses, ash-trees, poplars, and oaks, stand orchards of apple-trees, chesnut-trees, almond-trees, peach-trees, which require no culture. The slothful Georgians enjoy without labour or care the results of their ancestors' labours. Lower down, the hills are covered with olive-trees, fig-trees, and mulberry-trees. In the plains, and especially in the neighbourhood of the Black Sea, every path is amid groves of laurels, orange-trees, and lemon-trees; but on the rising grounds, in the plains, near the foaming cascades, and on the borders of the sea, every where the vine ascends to the tops of the highest trees, hangs in festoons, forms lengthened garlands from branch to branch, and produces excellent grapes without the smallest attention. In lower Georgia the grass grows to the height of a man, and sometimes stifles the little corn which the inhabitants sow. In Upper Georgia, which is also rich in iron, copper, lead, and the silver it yields, in salt and in marble, the beauty of the vegetation is admirable, without giving reason to complain of a barren abundance. The seringal, the jasmín, the rose of Caucasus, perfume every valley, and the rhododendron hides beneath its veil of flowers, both rocks and marshes.

Such is the charming province of which the Russians have now obtained the dominion. There can be no doubt but that government will endeavour to retain the sovereignty of Georgia in spite of every attempt to the contrary; the natural strength of the country is extremely favourable to the previous possessor.

Oratio Dominica CL. linguis versa, et propriis cujusque linguae characteribus plerumque expressa; Edente J. J. Marcel, Typographeii Imperialis Administro Generali. The Lord's Prayer, translated into 150 Languages, each expressed in its proper Words and Characters for the most Part. Edited by J. J. Marcel, Director General of the Imperial Printing Office. Royal 4to. price £2 12s. 6d. Paris, 1805. Dulan, London.

THE history of this curious volume is, that while the present Pope was at Paris, in 1805, for the purpose of crowning Buonaparte emperor, he was invited to visit the establishment of the national Printing-office in that city. This institution containing 150 presses, each press presented to his Holiness a copy of the Lord's Prayer, printed in a language different from that produced at the other presses. This of course was received with

due regard. It forms at once an honourable instance of the attention, the learning, and the utility of this public institution, a proof of the industry and talent of Europeans, who have at various periods made themselves masters of so many languages, most of which must have been studied at great distances from their native countries, and an undeniable evidence of the advantages derivable to mankind at large from the noble art of printing. The boundaries established by nature on the face of the globe, are less effectual barriers in separating the various tribes of mankind, than those which result from different languages and dialects, yet these have been overcome by perseverance and ingenuity.

So far as language is concerned, individuals of most nations upon earth may address their common father, with fervent hearts and united sentiments in the petitions of this excellent form of sound words. It would give us pleasure to believe, that in every country and climate this prayer was in daily use.

We cannot, however, consider this volume as comprising, strictly speaking, 150 languages. Several of the specimens before us are mere variations of dialects. For instance, the Greek includes the ancient dialect, the same in verse, modern Greek, Calabrian Greek, and Sicilian Greek. There are also three dialects of the Malay language; three of the Arabic; and the same number of others. The Chinese is from a MS. of Dr. Hager, who has added the *tones* in which the words should be pronounced. To the honour of our country, many of these pages are copied from British productions; Chamberlain has furnished several; others appear to be "*ex sylloge Londinensi*." We observe, that the Japanese language is omitted, yet we have seen this prayer in that language; it is also extant in London in the Otabeitan language. Neither does this volume exhibit any *Sanscrit* types: which we rather wonder at, considering the influence of the late Anquetil du Peron at Paris. Characters of some other languages might also have been added; nevertheless this volume is highly creditable to the state of the national press, and to M. Marcel its Director.

May not this collection be taken also as an instance of what may be accomplished towards enlightening "those who sit in darkness?" Why should not this prayer be followed by other Christian symbols,

then by the New Testament, and the whole of the sacred writings, till, at length, "the knowledge of the Lord shall extend to all people, and kindreds, and nations, and tongues?"

The Country Gentleman's Architect; containing a Variety of Designs for Farm-Houses and Farm-Yards, of different Magnitudes, arranged on the most approved principles for Arable, Grazing, Feeding, and Dairy-Farms; &c. By R. Lugar, Architect, &c. Royal Quarto. Plates 22. Price £1 5s. Taylor, London, 1807.

BESIDES cottages, which many other works contain, this collection offers plans of other buildings, which are useful in country situations: such as a black-smith's shop, the conveniences of an extensive farm-yard, dog-kennel, hunting stable, piggery, with room for steaming potatoes, granary, feeding-house, brew-house, malting-house, &c.

These designs are well calculated for general usefulness, and may suggest good hints to workmen, as well as to gentlemen. We perfectly agree with the author, that, "much previous reflection is necessary before a gentleman engages either in building or alteration;" and, that, "a strict survey of the situation, the nature, the extent, and the character of whatever building is proposed, may contribute to save much pains and labour, and to render the buildings more satisfactory when completed."

THE ARCHITECT · A · DRAMATICK · SKETCH ·
IN · TWO · ACTS · BY · THE · LATE · NICHOLAS · GYPSUM · ESQUIRE · AND · EDITED · BY · HIS · NEPHEW · 8VO · PP · 97 ·
PRICE · XXX · PENCE · JORDAN · AND · MAXWELL · LONDON · M · DCCC · VII ·

To speak ill of this sketch would be to oppose a proverb founded on Christian charity; since, alas! Nicholas Gypsum, Esquire is dead: to speak well of it would be a still more direct opposition to other Christian virtues, and to our own conviction. There is more wit in the title page, than in all the rest of the book; and more art in the price charged for it, than in the conduct of the piece; but this concerns neither the author nor his editor: since the first shews the printer's skill in the management of his types; and the latter the bookseller's, in the management of the public, — if he can sell his edition.

EXCERPTA.

OBSERVATIONS ON LICENSED PUBLIC-HOUSES.

From Mr. Colquhoun's Treatise on Indigence.

The prevailing habit among the labouring people in every district in England and Wales, of spending the chief part of their leisure time in alehouses, renders it an interesting inquiry, how far these places of entertainment are regulated upon principles calculated to prevent those evils and abuses, which, by affecting the morals, the health, and the domestic comfort of so large and so valuable a part of the community, may ultimately, by gradual and perhaps unforeseen steps, destroy the best props of the state.

The legislature, at an early period, when society and manners might be supposed to have made little progress, appears to have been impressed with a sense of injury to be dreaded, since by the act of the 5th of Edward VI. cap. 26, two hundred and fifty-three years ago, alehouses were placed under the particular direction of magistrates, who were required "to take bond and surety for good behaviour, against using unlawful games, and the maintenance of good order." The sum forfeited on conviction by this act was ten pounds, which has continued without alteration to this day, although, from the great difference in the value of money, £60 bail at this period would be nearly the same as £10 in the reign of Edward VI.

If it became so interesting an object to the legislature at so remote a period, when the morals of the people were probably less contaminated, and when the number of public-houses, must have been comparatively few, how important has it now become to attend minutely to this particular branch of police, when it is known that there are about 50,000 licensed alehouses in England and Wales, constantly holding out seductive lures to the labouring classes, in every part of the country*! Anciently they

Licensed House:.

In the city of London	820
In the hamlets of the Tower of London and Tower liberty	1050
In the city and liberty of Westminster	990
In the division of Holborn	750
In the division of Finsbury	390
In the division of Kensington	260
In Southwark and vicinity	950
	5,210
In the towns and villages in the vicinity of the metropolis, about	790
In the other cities, towns, and counties in England and Wales, supposed about	44,000
Total, including taverns, coffee-houses, inns, &c.	50,000

were merely considered as victualling-houses for strangers and travellers; and hence it is, that in technical language all licensed publicans are denominated *victuallers*. In modern times they are become the general receptacle of the vicious, the idle, and the profligate; and hence it is that they constitute one of the principal sources of those mischiefs which have given an unfavourable turn to the manners of the working classes.

In vulgar life, it is the first ambition of the youth, when approaching towards an adult state, to learn to smoke tobacco. When this accomplishment is acquired, he finds himself qualified to lounge and waste his time in the tap-room. It is here that his mind receives the first impressions of vice. The force of evil example is powerful. He insensibly imitates the destructive propensities of his seniors in point of age, until at length he is initiated in all the mysteries of low gaming, contracting at the same time habits of idleness and dissipation, which render him afterwards *a bad husband, a bad father, and a bad member of society.*

But the evil does not rest here. Numerous families of labourers lodge with their wives and children in common alehouses in the metropolis, and probably in most of the large cities and towns in different parts of the kingdom; while, of late years, the females, whose mothers and grandmothers would have been ashamed to enter a tap-room, now indiscriminately mix with the males, and unblushingly listen to all the rude and often obscene discourse which circulates freely in these haunts of vice and idleness.

In the year 1794, it appears, that 1,132,147 barrels of malt liquor were brewed in the metropolis, by thirty one porter-brewers, and by thirteen brewers of ale and amber, for its consumption alone, after deducting 265,208 barrels exported by sea, and consumed in other parts of the country; by which it appears that at that period 158,500,580 pots of porter and ale were drank in the metropolis and the vicinity, for which, at the then price of 3³/_d, average per pot, the consumers paid annually £2,311,466. 5s. 10d.

In the year 1806, the total quantity of porter, ale, and beer, brewed for sale in the metropolis, according to similar returns from the Excise-office, amounted to 1,454,192 barrels, exclusive of 441,320 barrels of small beer: deducting about 254,192 barrels for exportation and country sale, there remain 1,200,000 barrels or 168,000,000 pots of porter and ale, for the consumption of the metropolis, which, at the present price of 5d. a pot, amounts to £3,500,000.

The annual consumption of beer, drank in, or purchased from public-houses, may probably amount to £12,000,000 a year, and home-made spirits to about £5,000,000.

VINDICATION OF THE EARLY CHAPTERS OF
MATTHEW AND LUKE, ON PRINCIPLES NOT
HITHERTO ADOPTED.

The statement of our correspondent *Fidelis*, *Panorama*, vol. 1. p. 544 has recommended itself by its novelty as well as its argument to the notice of several inquirers after truth; and the *Gentleman's Magazine* has distinguished it, by reprinting it *entire*; honourably referring to the work whence it derived the communication. [In which it differs from others which have made very free with our articles, without acknowledgement.] We have therefore requested further favours from our Correspondent, and doubt not that they will equally recommend themselves by their accuracy, and by the additional light which they are adapted to throw on a subject confessedly of great importance.

There is nothing which so fully establishes our confidence in a writer, as a knowledge of what kind of man he is in his general character. If he be loose, inaccurate, heedless, we hardly know how to trust him when he declares the most solemn truths in the most solemn manner. If he be studious, particular, punctual, we pay some deference even to his merely current discourse; and if he affirm a thing, we rest satisfied of its truth and reality. But persons of accuracy seldom trust to their memory intirely; they usually make some kind of *memoranda*, or keep some kind of journal, in which they minute transactions as they occur; so that, at after periods, they can refer to events thus recorded, and refresh their memories by consulting their former observations. I believe too, that this is customary, chiefly, if not wholly, among men of letters, men of liberal and enlarged education, men who are conversant with science, and who know the value of such hints made on the spot, *pro re nata*. My first position is, that Luke the Evangelist was a person of learning, of accuracy of character, and that he instanced this by constantly keeping a journal of events, of which we have traces in his writings. He did not trust to his recollection, I say, but his ordinary mode was, to make *memoranda* of his proceedings.

Let us try a few passages of his travels by this rule.

We first find this evangelist, *Acts* xvi. 11. "leaving from Troas, we came with a straight course to Samothracia, and the next (day) to Neapolis, from thence to Philippi, a city of the first part of Macedonia, and a Roman colony." These particulars are precisely such as a traveller of adequate education would insert in his pocket-book.

Acts xx. *Memorandum of the company*.—1. Sopater of Berea—2. Aristarchus—3. Secundus; these were of Thessalonica—4. Caius, he was of Derbe—and 5. Timothy, whom I know so well as to have no need of marking his country—6. Tychicus—7. Trophimus; these were of Asia. These going before, tarried for us at Troas. *Memorandum of the time of year*.—We sailed from Philippi, after the days of unleavened bread [as we might say in modern English, directly after Easter.] *Memorandum of the time occupied in the journey*.—we came unto them to Troas in five days, where we abode seven days, &c.

Acts xxvii. At Cesarea—went on board a ship belonging to Adramyttium—Aristarchus, 1. a Macedonian, 2. of Thessalonica, in our company,—made sail same day. Next day touched at Sidon, staid there some little time, made sail again, wind contrary, sailed under the lee of Cyprus, sailed across the sea of Cilicia and Pamphylia, bore up for Myra, in Lycia: finding an Alexandrian vessel there, went on board her; sailed slowly, after many days, had hardly made Cnidus, the wind being unfavourable; sailed under the lee of Crete, standing towards Salmone, which we weathered with difficulty, and brought up in a roadstead called the Fair Havens, near Lasea. Not advisable to remain here, the opinion prevailed to make for Phenice: which is a good port of the same island, Crete, over against Africa, but bearing west south west of us.—You perceive, Sir, that every idea of these extracts is in the original; I have done no more than put them into current language, such as we find in books of travels. They are mostly particulars of no consequence to the main purport of the history; but they are evidently transcripts, not from memory, but from *memoranda*. The same we may say of the following.

Acts xxviii. 11.—After three months, we departed in a ship of Alexandria, which had wintered in the isle, (Malta) whose sign was Castor and Pollux; landing at Syracuse, we tarried there three days; from thence standing out to sea and tacking frequently, we came to Reggio; and after one day the wind blew from the south, we came the next day to Puteoli, tarried there seven days, went on to Appii Forum, and the Three Taverns, arrived in Rome.

This repeated mention of *days' journeys*, is clearly a continuation of the journal; and shews that the writer had not lost it in the shipwreck at Malta; he probably carried it about his person, and being saved himself, saved also his pocket-book. We often find travellers preserving their papers, when they lose every thing else. There are many other notes of time, &c. which might corroborate my assertion; but this specimen is all I offer at present.

I think the inference is undeniable, that the writer of the Acts of the Apostles, had, in composing that work, *written* evidence of the most accurate description before him.

Let us see whether he maintains the same character for precision in his Gospel; which he thus begins—"In the fifteenth year of Tiberius Cæsar (the Emperor), Pontius Pilate being governor of Judea, Herod tetrarch of Galilee, his brother Philip tetrarch of Iturea and the Trachonitis, Lysanias tetrarch of Abilene, Annas and Caiphas being high priests."—Could any man take greater pains to ensure precision, or to fix a date? He does not content himself with mentioning the year of the emperor, or the king of the country wherein the events he is about to narrate happened, but he calls in, by way of corroboration as it were, the evidence of three sovereigns, for no other purpose but that of marking the period he intended; they being afterwards dropped by him. I think this shews the particularity of a *writer*; of a man conversant with *written documents* of the most correct and precise description; one who trusted nothing to words or to memory. How *extra* precise should we think the man, who dated a volume from Jamaica—"In the fifteenth year of George III.—*such an one* being governor of Jamaica—*such an one* governor of Barbadoes—*such an one* governor of St. Kitts—*such an one* governor of Grenada, and the Rev. M. and N. archbishops of Canterbury and York." We should certainly conclude, "this writer, whatever else he is, is *correctness* itself."

We turn now to the Preface of St. Luke's Gospel, and we find it to be completely in union with this most marked exactness and precision; "*Whereas many good people enough, and not to be blamed, have taken in hand, but did not complete their intention, to publish AN ORDERLY narration of certain events, as they have been delivered to us by those, who from the beginning of these events, were (some of them) eye witnesses, and (others were) parties concerned in them, promoters of them by personal participation; it has seemed good to me, having accurately examined all points from a much earlier period than they had done, indeed from the very first rise of the matter, to write AN ORDERLY history of these things, and thereby to accomplish that desirable purpose in which these writers have failed.*"

I say, Sir, this profession of *correctness* and *order*, is perfectly in character with the man who tells us how many days he staid in such a place, in what point the wind was, what was the name of the ship he sailed in, on what occasion a council was held in the vessel, and what was the language and observations of the seamen, as to the bearing of the port they intended to make, &c. &c. This

man could not bear the imperfections of the books which came under his notice on a certain subject; he thought that they did not begin early enough, and that they ended too soon. He therefore determined to begin his history much earlier; and to continue it much later. This he accomplished in a manner, which we shall see hereafter.

But there is an instance of his *accuracy* and *spirit of research* that we ought not to pass unnoticed, Acts xxiii. 26; where he gives us, (translated I suppose from the Latin) a copy of the very letter which Claudius Lysias sent to his excellency Felix the governor. That this corresponds *exactly* with Roman letters of the like kind, we know very well; that it is not the original, will I think appear to any one who reads it with this idea on his mind; besides, that it should seem most natural for Roman officers to write to each other in their native language. And what (additional) do we learn from this letter? Nothing at all; had it been omitted, we should have known the same facts as we know now; but it is was not consistent with the *researching spirit* of this writer to let it escape him; it adds a *written document* to his history; and very characteristically, perhaps at a time when he had no intention of composing a history, he procures a copy, and preserves it years for future possible service.

I wish to state this argument on two suggestions: if St. Luke had *no intention* at this time of composing his history, his procuring this letter was the effect of his *general character*, and customary inquisitiveness. But if St. Luke *had an intention* at this time of composing a history, his procuring this letter is an instance of his collecting the most authentic materials possible for that purpose.

I might observe also, that in describing the inscription placed by Pilate's order on the cross of Jesus, St. Luke informs us very particularly, *that it was written in letters of Greek, Latin, and Hebrew*: a minute circumstance of no consequence; and what the Evangelists Mathew, and Mark, thought not worth mentioning; since if it were written in *one* language or character, the fact was as true as if it were written in fifty; yet the writers' turn of mind for correct observation of incidents, is I apprehend, evident in this, as in other *memoranda*. [Was there not a *written transcript* of this document preserved in the church; which St. Luke had seen?] The Apostle John many years afterwards confirmed the accuracy of this statement, in his own history of the transaction, whereof he was an eye-witness.

As I believe that it was St. Luke's custom to procure copies of writings, I shall endeavour in another communication to state other reasons for this belief.—Yours, &c.

FIDELIS.

DIDASCALIA.

DRURY LANE.

On Thursday, April 30, a tragedy entitled *Adelgitha, or the Fruits of a Single Error*, was performed at this theatre, preceded by a begging prologue, in which the author betrayed symptoms of fear, lest the audience should not hear it out—but, it being for the benefit of a lady (Mrs. Powell, who finely personated the character of Adelgitha) they evinced more gallantry and politeness than he seemed to expect, and no piece ever had a more patient hearing; excepting by a few wicked wits in the pit, who seemed to smile and amuse themselves with travesty: and it was given out, with much applause, for future representation, after an epilogue filled with the usual clap-traps; wherein were jumbled together Shakespear, King and Constitution, Rowe and Sheridan, beggarly account of empty benches, &c. &c. Although the allusion to his Majesty received, what is generally the case, respectful applause, yet, why in the name of propriety, should Mr. Sheridan be puffed off so much? particularly at his own house, and by his own servants? In strict justice, we look upon the stage trick of praising living dramatic authors, as an insult to the public; let the audience praise and not the players, &c.

This is an attempt by Mr. LEWIS, author of the *Monk*, to surprise the public by a moral play; a play wholly engaged on the behalf of virtue! As the Dramatist, therefore, has assumed this new character, we shall instance his notions of virtue in a few particulars.

The following are the Dramatis Personæ:

Michael Ducas, Emperor	} Mr. Raymond.
of Byzantium	
Robert Guiscard, Prince	} Mr. H. Siddons.
of Apulia	
Lothair,	} Norman } Mr. Elliston.
Tancred,	} Knights } Mr. Cooke.
Alciphron,	} Grecian } Mr. Tokely.
Dercetus,	} Notlemen } Mr. Maddocks.
Rainulf,	} Officers of } Mr. Carles.
Julian,	} Guiscard } Mr. Fisher.
Hubert, an old Minstrel	} Mr. Gibbons.

Adelgitha, Princess of Apulia	Mrs. Powell.
Imma, Princess of Byzantium	} Mrs. H. Siddons.
Abbess of St. Hilda	
Claudia, an Italian Lady	Miss Tidswell.
	Miss Boyce.

The scene lies at Otranto.

The Action passes in the Year 1080.

Adelgitha having been seduced and deserted by a young knight, by whom she had had a son, Lothair, five years previous, to her marriage with Robert Guiscard; who, by

the bye, contrary to history, (which has been most strangely disfigured) is represented as possessing the most scrupulous ideas of honour,* and is therefore kept in profound ignorance of that event. Adelgitha's secret being unhappily discovered to Michael Ducas, who is violently in love with her, but who finds every effort useless to attain his unlawful purposes, he threatens her with disclosing it to her husband, unless she consents to his desires—in this dilemma, rather than yield, she kills him, and afterwards herself. But, why force Adelgitha to such a crime as killing herself uselessly, when her husband had forgiven her, and had promised "to wipe her tears away, and hide her in his breast from scorn and sorrow;" why preclude every idea of repentance, particularly after such an allusion as the following?

But there's another world, more good, more happy;
A treasury, where each tear Repentance sheds,
Is stored with precious care, as men store pearls;
Where conscience, here guilt's bitterest foe, becomes
Its firmest advocate, and hours of pain
Are paid with heavenly bliss and life eternal.
Such fruits Repentance bears!

Why send Adelgitha out of the world without letting her inform her husband, on what account she killed the ungrateful tyrant, whose atrocity is represented as boundless, and who, after owing his life, crown, and kingdom to Guiscard, and enjoying all the comforts of hospitality at his court, while Guiscard was abroad fighting in his cause, and dethroning a usurper in possession of his kingdom, seeks to destroy his peace by ruining his wife's honour? If Adelgitha had no resource, by which, to preserve her own, and her husband's honour, but the murder of Ducas, why has not her husband the satisfaction of being acquainted with her intrepid fidelity?

However it is proper to hear the author's reasons why he immolates his heroine (for heroine she is, at least of his tragedy).—

"I make no doubt, that Adelgitha's fate will be reckoned too severe. In my justification I must observe, that my object in writing Tragedy was to illustrate a particular fact: viz. "the difficulty of avoiding the evil consequences of a first false step."—It appeared to me, that the more venial the offence, and the more amiable the character of the offender, the more strongly would the above position be proved; and the very nature of my object made it necessary, that Adelgitha should be the constant victim of her single

* From the example set by Mr. Lewis in thus perverting history, future poets may represent the present ambitious, ferocious, disturber of Europe, under the title of the amiable, the mild, the immaculate Buonaparté, fighting the cause of distressed innocence and virtue!

transgression in *this* life, and only receive the reward of her many virtues in the life to come.—But, above all, I must request, that no one will mistake Adelgitha for a heroine—I meant to represent in her—"A woman, with "all her sex's weakness,"—whose natural inclinations were virtuous and benevolent; but who was totally unprovided with that firmness of mind, which might have enabled her to resist the force of imperious circumstances.—Accordingly she gives way to them one after another, and is led on gradually and involuntarily from crime to crime, till she finds herself involved in guilt beyond the possibility of escaping.*—Such was my plan, though perhaps the defects of its execution may have prevented the reader from discovering it till now."—Page 127.

The author is himself so conscious of his numerous imitations and plagiarisms, that he has kindly aided the reader with a key to a few, which are alternately taken from Italian, French, English, and even Greek authors: for the remainder, we suppose he concludes they are his own.

"P.S.—The reader will probably perceive a similarity between one of Lothair's situations, and that of *Artace*, in the first act of *Metastasio's* Opera of *Artaserse*. This did not suggest itself to me, till my Tragedy was finished; but I must confess the resemblance is very striking."—*Preface*, p. 10.

"The offer made by Michael Ducas to Lothair resembles that of *Bajazet* to *Axalla* in *Tamerlane*; but it appeared to me that the circumstance of *Axalla's* princely rank and of Lothair's obscure origin gave so different a turn to the two scenes, that I did not think it necessary to alter mine, merely on account of the similarity of the situations. I dare not conclude this note without expressing a hope, that no good-natured critic will accuse me of presumptuously intending to enter into a competition with *Rowe*."—Page 32.

This play has the fault of most modern

* This is no reason for Adelgitha's ill treatment by the author; her husband ought to have known the extent of Michael Ducas' guilt—if it had been only in justice to Adelgitha—who carries with her the iniquity and obloquy of murdering him solely because he knew her secret.

Fatal chance

Betrayed to Michael's ear this dangerous secret.
His heart was hard; my brain was wrought to frenzy;
He knew and threatened me; I feared, and slew him;

while it is obvious to every spectator that her only resource to preserve [not merely her secret, but] her own and her husband's honour, was his death.

stage productions, it is too long; and with judicious curtailment may be considerably improved. The incidents and interest are well managed, and have certainly a great effect. We understand the character of Lothair was originally intended for the *Young Roscius*, as he was called. According to our old fashioned ideas it has greatly gained in interest, although performed by a man.†

The author has prefixed a motto from Virgil.

"——Facilis descensus Averni:

Sed revocare gradum——

Hoc opus, hic labor est."—*Æneid*, l. vi.

"Tis in man's choice never to sin at all,
But sinning once, to stop exceeds his power."

Against the extent of this free translation we enter our protest, abiding rather by the decision of a certain predecessor of Mr. Lewis with whose works he seems to be pretty conversant, and who does not carry the principle quite so far.

I am in blood
Stept in so far, that, should I wade no more;
Returning were as tedious as go o'er.

The following specimens of the poetry will enable our readers to judge for themselves.

Revenge and Forgiveness.

What'er my injuries,

Grant, ye blest heavens, that Guiscard ne'er may bend

His knee at dark *Revenge's* blood-stained altar!

High on a rock his horrid temple stands,
Of burning iron built, and closely paved
With human hearts, which at each step he tramples.

But tremble, fiend! Tears shed in vain have escaped
Thy rock's foundations; Hate and Fear prepare
Their subterranean fires, which, when they burst,
Will hurl thee piece-meal to the winds of Heaven,
And where thou fall'st no dew shall bless the sod—

† To prove to what an extent of folly the infantine theatrical mania was carried, and how far the public subjected age and experience to the insult of youth and arrogance, we subjoin the following anecdote.—One morning when Master Betty, (*alias* the *Young Roscius*), was rehearsing Richard, he altered the place and manner of Mr. Wroughton's position, as well as Mrs. Ansell's, and that of Mr. Packer's entering and standing, who told him "he had played it with Mr. Garrick nearly twenty years in that manner;" however, the child informed the veteran, "it was wrong and must be altered;" upon which he gave up the point, saying, "to please him, he would conform to his ideas;" but when he came to tell Mrs. Powell, "Queen, you must not stand there," she answered, "There she had stood for sixteen years, and there she would stand," nor could the boy induce her to quit her station.

But fair *Forgiveness* (robed in vestal-white,
Which speck of blood ne'er stained) her shrine of
chrysal,

Her balmy bowers, and ever-gushing fountains,
Quits for the embattled field.—There, when she
finds

Some foe o'erthrown, she from her poppy-garland
Shakes dew oblivious on his fainting brows;
And bathes his wounds with tears; and binds
them gently

With her torn hair; and if she fails to save him,
Shesings so sweet a requiem o'er his corse,
That Hate relenting throws his sword away;
And sinks upon that breast 'twas raised to wound!

Invasion of a happy Country.

Stretch to the utmost

Thy power to vex *Apulia* and its lord;
With barks, like locust-clouds, o'erspread the ocean;
Rob all thy realms of men, and at one effort
Pour thy whole population on our coasts;
Still shalt thou see thy squadrons (like ripe corn
Beneath the reaper's scythe) laid low, encountering
The patriot subjects of a patriot prince,
Who loves his people, whom his people love.—

Power of Woman.

Oh! woman, woman!

Enchantress! Angel! All things own thy sway!
The neck, which scorns all other yokes, is proud
To draw thy roseate car! thy melting voice
Lures the light flutterer from its tree!—thy smile
Tames the fierce tiger's rage; and hearts, more
cold

And hard than rock-born chrysal, melt like wax,
Touched by the magic fire of thy bright eyes.

Ambition contrasted.

My soul abhors
That man, whose thirst of power or pride of con-
quest

Distracts the globe, and builds with bleeding corpses
The savage trophy of his vain renown.—

The storm, whose lightnings blast and whirlwinds
ravage,

From all exacts surprise, and awe, and terror!

But far more happy is that genial shower

Falling to fertilize some thirsty land,

Which hears the blessing rise of grateful peasants

For plenty, health, and toils not borne in vain.—

COVENT GARDEN.

On Friday, May 8, was performed at this
Theatre for the first time, an operatic drama,
entitled *Peter the Great*, or *Wooden Walls*,
of which the following are the *Dramatis Per-*
sonæ:

Peter the Great, - - - Mr. C. Kemble.

Le Fort, - - - - - Mr. Bellamy.

Mauritz, - - - - - Mr. Munden.

Count Menzikoff, - - Mr. Pope.

Sparrowitz, - - - - Mr. Simmons.

Olmutz, - - - - - Mr. Waddy.

Petrowitz, - - - - - Mr. Murray.

Michael Petrowitz, - Mr. Incedon.

Paulina, - - - - - Miss Bolton.

Genevieve, - - - - - Mrs. Davenport.

Catherine, - - - - - Mrs. C. Kemble.

This is another perversion of history, al-
though not of so palpable a nature as the pre-

ceding; and the principal part of the plot
hinges on the adventures of the Czar Peter
during his ship-building servitude. Mr.
Cherry, the author of this piece, has trans-
formed the celebrated empress, Catherine I.
into a niece of Mauritz, a Livonian ship-
builder, and because Peter had worked as a
common labourer in the dock-yards of Hol-
land and England, he has given him prefer-
ment, and elevated him to the rank of fore-
man to Mauritz, where he becomes enamoured
of Catherine, and utters sentiments like the
hero of a romance. Thus our readers will
perceive neither of the characters are described
as real history portrays them, but as furnish-
ing occasion for a modern opera; and *Peter the
Great* (who undoubtedly affords an excel-
lent subject for the theatric muse) must sub-
mit to the fate of many other heroes, who have
being flimsily dramatized merely by way of
a vehicle for music. However we must ac-
knowledge that the author has made a pleasing
drama, and that he has been singularly lucky
in a composer who has well seconded
his muse. It is enriched with the most
interesting music we have heard for some
time, and was received with flattering sym-
ptoms; most of the songs having been enco-
ured. The dialogue is sprightly, entertaining,
full of sentiments, and has many good points;
though there is too glaring an endeavour to
catch applause by complimenting our own
country. It was well received, the character
of Sparrowitz excepted; which was marked
by the audience with just indignation; and
we trust the author will pay that deference to
their judgment, which we have no doubt he
will find to be the opinion of all Europe in
the present awful crisis; and that he will ex-
punge every thing that can in the most distant
manner reflect discredit on soldiers—all stage
exhibitions ought now to be the very re-
verse of this contemptible *petit-maitre*.

Mrs. C. Kemble performed the part of
Catherine with spirit, and gave her songs with
great effect—her husband was so tame and
languid that we could not perceive any thing
about his manner that indicated the character
of Peter the Great; indeed, we concluded
he was indisposed. Munden was very char-
acteristic, and in his song of *Oh! Reynard*,
was particularly happy.

The music is composed by Mr. Jouve.

* She was born of poor parents, in Livonia,
whom she very early lost, and then lived
with a clergyman, at whose death she went
to Marienburgh, married a Swedish dragoon,
who was killed when that place was taken by
the Russians. She afterwards lived with Ge-
neral Bauer; then obtained a situation in
Prince Menzikoff's family, who was also
struck with her beauty—here she attracted
the notice of Peter the Great, who made her
his mistress, and then his wife.

MEMOIRS OF M. DE LA HARPE.

[Continued from page 331.]

CHAP. III.—*Death of Louis XV.—Barmecides.—Jeanne de Naples.—Menzikoff.—M. Necker.—M. de Calonne.—Coriolanus.—Philoctetes.—Virginia.—Les Brame.—Cours de Littérature.—Linguet.—Lyceum.*

Louis XV. died, and the philosophers left no effort unemployed to seize upon the new reign: their success is well known, and the ministers of that period are not yet forgotten. M. Turgot, who possessed the predominant influence of the time, paid his court to literary men; and, establishing the success of all his speculations on public opinion, whose inconstancy he had not considered, he was anxious that his operations should be supported and extolled by experienced writers.—Of all the men of letters at that time in France, M. de la Harpe was the least proper to engage in such a ministerial service; and he afterwards was actually compromised in a business to which he was by no means competent. It may be remembered, that there was a dearth of grain in France, during the administration of Turgot, so that a spirit of revolt discovered itself at Paris, and in several of the provinces. The parliament, which was in opposition to the minister, encouraged the sale of a book written against the economists. M. de la Harpe gave an account of it in the *Mercur*, and treated it with great severity. The parliament, irritated on the occasion, determined to punish the author of this article, whose liberty was for some time threatened. This is the third time of his subjecting himself to inconveniences for having written in favour of persons to whom he considered himself as bound by obligations.—This last scrape, however, had no unpleasant consequences—the ministry protected him; and as the notions of the economists were, at this time, the most popular, the menaced persecution was so far from proving injurious to the author, that it served, on the contrary, to increase his reputation.

M. de la Harpe, in the midst of those literary labours to which he had devoted himself for several years, had never entirely lost sight of the theatre, nor ever ceased to aspire to the honours of it. He had employed his talents on three subjects of very different natures. In the *Barmecides* he had endeavoured to represent the noble qualities of heroism and generosity. In *Jeanne de Naples* the mournful effects of the passions; in *Menzikoff* the fall of an omnipotent minister, and which must proportionally command an interest in the heart, accompanied with a resignation beyond example. The last piece, the local circumstances of which were altogether new, had great success in the closet,

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where the essential faults in the plan and the conduct of the play were not perceptible. So great was its reputation, that the young Queen* expressed a wish to hear it. This uncommon mark of favour, for some time at least, silenced his enemies. Nevertheless, he met with another obstacle to his literary fortune. The unreserved freedom with which he pursued his critical labours had made him enemies even in the party to which he appeared to belong.

The death of M. de Saint Aignan having made a vacancy in the Academy, it was very generally expected that M. de la Harpe would be named to succeed him. The unexampled number of prizes which he had gained in his academic contests, justified the expectation that the choice must fall upon him. Indeed, the public opinion might be said to have already elected him. But that opinion was baffled by an intrigue, the details of which have not been collected, and the preference was given to M. Colardeau, a composer of very elegant verses, but without any imagination whatever, and possessed of a very moderate share of literary attainments. He died, however, in a short time after his nomination, and the Academy, at length, admitted among the number of its members the orator and the poet whom it had so often crowned.

From this moment the literary existence of M. de la Harpe acquired a more solid character. His detractors, however, still continued their attacks with the same injustice, but with more reserve; while M. de la Harpe, on his part, avoided those literary disputes where the heat of criticism too often degenerates into personality.

Thus have we given rather extensive details on the difficulties of every kind which M. de la Harpe encountered before he reached that degree of consideration which was so justly due to his extraordinary merit. It must appear that this long contest, which a young man of superior talents and unreserved character maintained against rivals whom he despised too openly, presents an interesting and moral picture; and his example may serve as a lesson to restrain young men, who, often—

* Want of room obliges us to defer, for the present, a curious anecdote relative to the *tragedy* of *Menzikoff*, related by Mr. Dutens, with M. de la Harpe's verses to M. de Schowalow, High Chamberlain of Russia, in which there is an elegant compliment paid to the late unfortunate Queen of France.—*The Historical Memoir of Prince Menzikoff* may be seen at length in *Panorama*, vol. I. p. 321. This interesting piece was taken by M. de la Harpe from the *Memoirs of General Mawstein*, the *Journal of Peter the Great*, and the *History of Menzikoff*, printed in 1770, at the end of *Northern Anecdotes*, Sec.

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times, with more pride and less natural or acquired qualifications, enter, without consideration, on the career of letters. Hereafter, the more tranquilized life of M. de la Harpe will be less interesting; and hence it is, that we shall pass rapidly over that epocha which preceded the revolution, to enter into the detail of that change which the public misfortunes operated in the opinions of M. de la Harpe; when we shall see him exercising, in the defence of religion and social order, that sincerity and courage which had distinguished him in much less important controversies, till, at length, we shall contemplate him in the act of raising a monument to taste and to reason, which will long survive the frail edifices which the philosophers of the last age have built upon the sand.

M. de la Harpe had shewn himself worthy of having friends: his college connexions were above all most dear to his heart; and the Marquis de Pezay, with whom he had pursued his collegiate studies, was long connected with him, though of a very different taste and disposition. Some time previous to the retreat of M. Turgot, M. de Pezay, by means of his mother, a woman possessed of a very intriguing mind, and a sister equally distinguished for her wit and her beauty, had obtained an admission to court. There he was concerned in a secret business, which, while it made his fortune, laid the foundation of that of M. Necker. The manner in which M. de Pezay conducted himself at this time towards M. de la Harpe, and the complaints made by the latter, which are clothed in very beautiful versification, demand a short account of the transaction, which will also serve to give some notion of the spirit of the times.

M. de Pezay was very much cherished by M. de Maurepas, who, from his frivolous turn of mind, was pleased with the trifling productions of that poet. Having obtained the consent of the minister, he took upon himself to write to the King, and to communicate certain details respecting the principal persons of the court. The young prince found this communication very amusing; and expressed a wish that M. de Pezay would occasionally write to him in the same strain. It will be readily believed that M. de Pezay took every advantage of the permission; and this correspondence, of which he made a boast, gave him a certain consequence both at court and in the world. M. Necker, who, at that time, was nothing more than an opulent banker, and *chargé d'affaires* from Switzerland, but who, at the same time, aspired to be a minister, connected himself with M. de Pezay, and flattered him with the hopes of a great fortune, if he would speak frequently of him in his letters. The ambitious correspondent of Louis XVI. acted according to

this suggestion; so that, on the death of M. de Clugny, the King, surrounded by the admirers of M. Necker, appointed him immediately to be director of the royal treasure, under M. Taboureau, a man of no talents whatever, and who had nothing more than the title of Comptroller General. Within a few months M. Necker contrived to effect the dismissal of M. Taboureau, and to succeed him. M. de Pezay now found himself in a state of eminence and splendour. He was appointed to the employment of Inspector General of the troops on the coast, and, in order to prove his acquaintance with the military art, he published an edition of the *Memoirs of Maillebois*. The moment he fancied himself to be a great man, he treated M. de la Harpe with coldness, and, by degrees, alienated himself from his former friend: who expressed his just resentment on the occasion in the following lines:

Dorilas avec moi fut uni dès l'enfance.
Tout nous était commun, jeux, plaisirs, espérance.

J'étais le confident des secrets les plus chers,
De ses premiers amours, de ses premiers vers.
Il recherchait le monde, et moi la solitude,
Il aimait le fracas, je préférais l'étude.
Quelquefois cependant il venait en secret,
Boire avec son ami le vin du cabaret.
Mais lorsqu'il fut admis à d'illustres toilettes,
Qu'une Duchesse un jour eut acquitté ses dettes,
Il ne fut plus le même; et son froid embarras
Etonna l'amitié qui lui tendait les bras.
Son sourire apprêté repoussa mes caresses:
Il me parut disrait, il me fit des promesses:
Je lui trouvai le ton beaucoup trop ennobli; —
Je l'avais vu sensible, et le voyais poli.
Je m'éloignai bientôt: mon humeur confiante
Ne put souffrir long-temps sa réserve offensante.
Je laissai Dorilas de lui-même ébloui,
Croire qu'un protégé va'ait mieux qu'un ami.
Cependant j'ai pleuré de son erreur funeste.

The connection which M. de la Harpe had formed with M. Turgot did not prevent M. Necker from courting his acquaintance. The circle of Madame Necker, which was composed of the most eminent literary men, would have been incomplete, if the author of *Warwick* had not been of the party: M. de la Harpe was not backward in meeting such advances, and became the intimate companion of the minister. Ambition, however, had no influence on his conduct; zealous in the extreme, when engaged to serve his friends, he never asked a favour for himself. Neither M. Turgot or M. Necker procured him a pension, nor did he receive one till a short time previous to the Revolution, when he was indebted for it to M. de Calonne, with whom he had no connexion.

In the course of twelve years M. de la Harpe had written several dramatic works, which, without being so successful as Warwick, maintained the reputation of the author. *Les Muses Rivaies*, an episodic piece, written as an eulogium on Voltaire, was admired for its elegance and variety; and if it had been constructed according to dramatic rule, would have proved a favourite of the theatre. *Coriolanus* and *Philoctetes* were performed with success; but a plot behind the curtain, of which the author was the object, rendered it necessary for him to give *Virginia* as an anonymous work. This piece, which is distinguished by its style, and the fidelity of its colouring, has been frequently revived. The last disgrace which M. de la Harpe suffered was on account of *Les Brames*, a philosophic tragedy, which was judged with the greatest severity. The author had so often declared himself the enemy of literary innovations, that it was by no means an unreasonable expectation that his enemies would employ his own principles against him, when he had the imprudence to deviate from them.

We have hitherto paid but little attention to an object which claims a distinguished place in this memoir. It is well known that M. de la Harpe was indebted for a large portion of his high reputation to the solid and luminous powers of his criticism: The exercise of this superior talent, to which he devoted the more considerable part of his life, produced, at length, the *Cours de Littérature*, which may, with justice, be considered as one of the most celebrated literary monuments of the eighteenth century. It becomes, then, a matter of some importance to unite in a single digression all that can be said on his mode of judging and criticising, as well as the disputes in which the frankness of his disposition involved him.

In this application of the mind, which has so powerful an influence on literature, it must be acknowledged that M. de la Harpe is an admirable model. If he has not always preserved that tone of politeness which ought to distinguish literary men; if he has not always been guided by that spirit of consideration which consists in displaying the faults of authors, without wounding their self-love; it is but justice to acknowledge, that he possessed a dignity of character which never humiliated itself to the impressions of injury or adulation. An admirable logic, and a cutting irony, were his only arms. When he has clearly demonstrated the absurdity of any literary opinions, he assumes at once a more superficial mode of reasoning, to convince those who cannot attend to or examine a serious argument. This was surely an excellent method to be adopted in periodical works, which are read in haste, and without permanent attention. It is necessary that works of this na-

ture should not only furnish matter for reflection to the few who possess reflecting minds, but also for the amusement of the far more numerous readers who look into a book to be pleased only for the moment. Desfontaines and Freron had practised with great success this latter mode of pleasing their subscribers. Without making any display of erudition, or giving a long, detailed account of the work under consideration, they were profuse in malignant reflections; they made the most cutting comparisons, and sought rather to perplex than to instruct. Their partiality was also too much marked; it was sufficient to know the author of a work, to conceive in advance what the judgment of these journalists would prove. Just and liberal criticism was not expected from them. On the contrary, it became an object of curiosity to examine what means they would use to disparage a valuable work, if it were written by one of their enemies, or to conceal the errors of a feeble volume, if one of their friends should have been the author of it. The manner in which difficulties were overcome was a principal object for admiration in these discussions. Hence it was that Freron occasionally contrived to maintain, with some degree of plausibility, that Dorat composed excellent verses, and that the Warwick of M. de la Harpe was a bad tragedy. Thus did the passions of literary men amuse the public, who were tranquil spectators of their violent contests.

M. de la Harpe has never been accused of these disgraceful excesses. He considered that the first duty of a critic was to respect himself, and to avoid, with the most cautious attention, the possibility of being made to blush for his critical decisions. His literary observations, therefore, were consequently founded on the principles of justice and of truth, though sometimes too deeply tinged with severity. He never hesitated to praise, without restriction, all productions of merit, however opposite the opinions of their respective authors might be to his; and though he might have reason to complain of their personal conduct to himself. Of all the philosophic party, he was the only one who rendered public justice to the talents of M. Le Franc. It is known that he made Voltaire himself admire the fine ode of that poet on the death of Rousseau. Nor did he fail to praise the verses of Gilbert, who, in a very nervous satire, had denied that the author of Warwick possessed talents of any kind. The only man of letters of the eighteenth century to whom he had been manifestly unjust is M. Clement. His poetry, indeed, might want force and colour; his prose might be deficient in elegance and harmony; but no one ever doubted that he possessed a most correct taste, vast erudition, and that he had

opposed himself oftentimes, and successfully, to innovations that were attempted to be introduced into literature. These titles to the esteem and approbation of instructed minds should have rendered M de la Harpe less severe on that writer. This injustice, of which, however, he reformed himself in his latter years, may be attributed to the malicious suggestions of M. de Voltaire, who never could pardon certain excellent criticisms which M. Clement had made on the works of the philosopher of Ferney.

Linguet was the man of letters with whom M. de la Harpe employed the least reserve.—This violence, however, censurable as it may be, might find some excuse in the character of the man whom the critic had to combat. M. Linguet's rage for paradoxes is well known. In two historical treatises, which he published, it was his pleasure to contradict the ancient traditions. He undertook to defend Tiberius and Caligula, and ventured to express his doubts as to the virtues of Vespasian and Titus. This man, who had never manifested the least scruple as to the nature of the causes which he pleaded at the bar, possessed the same comprehensive spirit of controversy in his literary career. It was indifferent to him which side he took, if he found the opportunity to indulge his sophistical and captious spirit. The most erroneous hypotheses, the most extraordinary conclusions, and the most inaccurate comparisons were the arms which he employed. Such a mode of reasoning is altogether inconsistent with honour and with truth; and he, consequently, had no scruple whatever to pervert facts, or sometimes even to invent them. Confident even to effrontery, he was never alarmed at the consequences which might follow from his bitter dissertations, or the injury his character might sustain from these productions; and when he was convicted of violating the truth, he defended himself by new forgeries. His style was in a bad taste, but being pompous, and possessing a factitious glow, it pleased many of his contemporaries. They mistook his abusive language for oratorical emotions; the bursts of chagrin for flashes of genius; and at a period when there was not a prevailing inclination for paradoxes, Linguet passed, in the opinion of many people, for a model of eloquence.

M. de la Harpe, a principal quality of whose mind was a correct way of thinking, could not well avoid the opposition which he made to the erroneous doctrines and false taste of this sophist. Linguet replied with his usual violence and asperity; and the critic, who ought to have treated the abuse with silent contempt, condescended to answer it.—Thus it appears, that the errors with which he has been reproached, in his criticism of contemporary writers, proceeded from circum-

stances which greatly palliate, if they do not altogether excuse him. In general, his opinions have been fully confirmed by the subsequent judgment of all those who possessed the capacity to determine upon them. Indeed, he appears to have excelled all preceding critics in the art of conducting a literary journal, and the rules by which criticism should be governed in order to obtain its legitimate objects.

M. de la Harpe united all the qualities which a critic should possess, in the three journals, which were indebted for their great success to the superior sagacity of his mind, and the extensive erudition with which it was enriched and adorned. It is, indeed, to be lamented that, in his opinions, he too often adopted that decided tone which, though it proceeded from an intimate conviction of the truth of his opinions, too often inflicted an unnecessary wound on the natural self-love of those authors whose works he had undertaken to appreciate.

This defect, which the predominating sincerity of his character can alone excuse, was as prevalent in his conversation as in his writings. With men, whatever their rank might be, he always assumed an air of authority whenever conversation was occupied by literary inquiries. The continual habit of discussion qualified him to enter at once on a profound examination of subjects, which the generality of mankind have only regarded with a superficial attention; and when he encountered self-conceited or headstrong opponents of his opinions, he did not always treat them in a manner which the decorum of social life requires. This authority, which he assumed in every thing that had the least relation to literature, rendered him an object of fear to all those who had pretensions to the literary character; and the path is not long which leads from fear to hatred. He had no friends but among those who, admitted to his intimate acquaintance, had an opportunity of appreciating those fine qualities which fully redeemed the errors they were compelled to lament; particularly as they were more dangerous to himself than injurious to society. These qualities consisted of an entire devotion to the service of his friends, of a sincerity of which no one ever doubted, and a noble spirit, which, though sometimes violent, was always faithful.

With the women M. de la Harpe assumed those pleasing and polished manners which enlarged society requires. His conversations were then gay and condescending; and without entering on grave discussions, he had the faculty to make the most barren subject a source of pleasure and amusement.

This disdain of the more polished and elegant decorums of life, which was imputed to M. de la Harpe, was rather a natural failing

in his character, as we have already observed, but it was increased by a circumstance, which, as it is a peculiar feature of the times, it may be useful to recollect.

At this period, when a change seemed to be operating in every thing, the noblemen of high rank, no longer confining themselves to be the protectors of literature, entered personally into that career, and endeavoured to attain an eminence incompatible with their destination in society. Dukes and peers were seen disputing with *Dorât*, the palm of fugitive poetry; and Marshals of France submitted to very humiliating advances, in order to gain admission into the Academy. The philosophers, availing themselves with no common dexterity of this extraordinary change, did not fail to direct to their purposes the powerful protection of the great; and it was not uncommon to see the most violent dissertations against authorised power, and the high distinctions of honour, sanctioned by the very persons whom their libels outraged, and whose ruin they menaced.

M. de la Harpe, who was then very generally considered as the oracle of taste, was not without his titled clients, who came to request his help or his indulgence, to satisfy their ridiculous vanity. He very willingly took that station among them which they assigned him. The more they humiliated themselves, the more the man of letters availed himself of their submission. This circumstance occasionally produced very comic scenes, which M. de la Harpe used to relate with great humour when he wished to give an idea of the total inattention to propriety which distinguished the close of the eighteenth century.

It was at this moment of public favour, when M. de la Harpe began his *Cours de Littérature*. Indolence, and the disgust which proceeds from a satiety of pleasures, had called forth a new species of spectacle at Paris. Certain men of learning and taste, opened a school under the name of the Lyceum, where people of fashion might receive a tincture of letters and science; and by acquiring some superficial knowledge, might repair the deficiencies of a neglected education. This institution was at first very successful; the women flocked thither in crowds; the lectures became the subjects of general conversation, and were preferred to every other kind of amusement. M. de la Harpe was chosen Professor of Literature. He did not stop to enquire whether this establishment did not tend to produce among the rising generation a scientific babbling, more prejudicial, as well as offensive, than ignorance itself; but entered at once upon the task of pleading the cause of taste before an audience which was oftentimes unworthy of his instructions.

[To be continued.]

ON THE ORIGIN OF MILITARY TACTICS.

[From the German of Meusel.]

A regular system of warfare was not of early invention. For, though men soon began to murder one another with clubs, and exchanged them for swords and spears; yet the inventive Greeks were the first to discover, that a certain number of spears, united in a given spot, operated much better than if they were single. But a body was necessary for this purpose whose motions must be uniform, to advance in close order. Hence the origin of the *phalanx*. Any one acquainted with history knows, that the art of attacking, and means of assistance and advantage soon raised warfare to a complicated and difficult science. To break through the thick ranks of the enemy, and with cavalry to pursue; to scour the country, to cut off reinforcements, and to reconnoitre; it became necessary that plans of attack and defence, and the position of armies, should be varied. Thus the art of war among the Greeks gradually assumed a systematic appearance.

Each preconceived position for attacking required its concomitant position for defending; and the offensive party could clearly foresee, by the method of attack, what line of battle the enemy would draw up in for his defence. Few commanders dared, except in particular cases, to deviate from these general rules, and take new positions according to circumstances. Attacks by night, and the superior force of the enemy obliged them to think of covering their camp. Ditches and inclosures were the first ordinary means resorted to; afterwards followed ramparts, wooden towers, ambuscades, &c. That the camp might break up at a moment's warning, it was necessary that it should be as compact as possible; that tents and baggage should be brought into a small compass, and there should be internal regulations to obviate all confusion and inconvenience. Hence arose the art of encamping among the Greeks.

A regular plan of a camp was adopted, according to the number of troops, and according to a more or less modern arrangement. Hence all camps among the ancients only differed in size and strength; the form remained the same. Strong towers, high walls, and deep ditches, were reckoned the best means in those days of defending cities. The enemy employed simple, but strong mechanical powers to destroy the fortifications. As the battering engines could hurl large masses with a moderate force, they were advantageously placed on heights. The besiegers built wooden towers of immense height, and the besieged raised theirs in proportion. These towers counteracted the advantage of high walls, and the besiegers and the besieged, in regard to

situation, were on an equal footing. As each soldier was a citizen fighting for his property, the besieged were often formidable to the besiegers; so that lines of circumvallation were obliged to be drawn in most sieges. Obstinate resistance caused bold attacks, and both produced extraordinary efforts, which served as examples in future sieges. Thus the besieging system of the Greeks was gradually organized.

The Romans took their whole system of tactics from the Greeks, and retained it, with very few alterations, until the decline of their empire. Upon the whole, however, they by degrees surpassed their masters; as, by the organization of their legions, they finally conquered all, even the phalanx itself.

If this writer had accurately examined the formation of the Israelite camp in the wilderness, under Moses, he would have found in it the very best principles of castramentation, and such as were afterwards of essential service to the Romans. We shall instance a few particulars in proof of our opinion.

1. The form of the camp we presume to think was circular; composed in fact, of three concentric circles: the outer circle contained the warlike men of the tribes, the second circle contained the tribe of Levi, appointed to sacred service, the third contained the priests in immediate attendance on the tabernacle, which was understood to be the residence of the general, (the Divinity) and near to which, the general (Moses) really resided. Every part of the extremity of the camp, therefore, was equally distant from the head-quarters, and could give or receive intelligence without loss of time.

2. The streets of the camp radiated from the center, in such a manner, that the signals made from the tabernacle, could be seen without impediment in all parts of the camp: while the camp could even perceive the tabernacle, and what passed there, generally.

It is true, that the Roman camps were square, not round; but they had, like this of Moses, a raised space in the midst, in which stood the *sacellum*, or small temple adjoining to the general's tent. They also presented when the army was numerous, more than one line of troops; so that if the first line was attacked suddenly, the second might form for defence.

3. In the Hebrew camp, each tribe was formed by itself, and the whole family of which it consisted was encamped on the same spot. It may be described as a regiment of a family, instead of a county. The arrangement of this regiment was, into thousands, a colonel; into hundreds, a captain; into tens, a serjeant; into fives, a corporal.

It should seem, that we have in the arrangement of the clans of Scotland in former times, precisely the organization of the Hebrew regiments; and that men will fight with exem-

plary valour under the eye of their relatives and connexions, needs no other illustration than that of our northern compatriots.

4. The order of march in the Hebrew army, was the same as the order of the camp: so that, when the camp rose, every man knew his tribe and place; and when it was pitched, the whole preserved the same relative order as before.

5. Signals were made by smoke in the day, time, by fires in the night; and every tribe having a signal-staff, or fire-bearer, of a different shape from the others, no confusion needed to ensue. But unless these fires were burning, it is probable that no man was bound to follow his party.

6. How far any ditch or other defences to a camp was formed in those days, we have no information.

We have hinted at these particulars, in proof that the art of war was advanced considerably towards a system; if that system were not actually completed, at a period anterior to what M. Meuzel was aware of. As to the formation of military bodies, the charge, &c. it is probable that this differed among different nations. The light-armed troops, we may suppose, were light enough, since slingers of stones formed no inconsiderable part of them. This art, however, was brought to great nicety; some could sling a stone to a hair's breadth, and not miss; others were taught to fetch down their breakfasts from the boughs of a tree by means of their slings, before they could eat it. The heavy armed troops were certainly taught something of tactics: we read 1 Chron. xii. 33. of 50,000 men of Zebulun that *could keep rank*: and verse 38, "men of war, that *could keep rank*;" meaning, it may be thought, in a charge, or in a conflict.

Something of the same arrangement appears in the Mosaic camp. We find mention Numb. ii. 16. of some who were to march in the *second rank*: and verse 24 of others who were to march in the *third rank*: and verse 31 of others who *brought up the rear*, with their standards.

What might be the practice in these early ages among other nations, we do not know; as we have no particulars relating them so distinctly narrated, which to judge. But these are sufficient to shew, that to regard the Greeks, as the origin of the systematic arrangement of this art, is to diminish the antiquity of it by many ages. In fact, the Greeks were rather an imitative than an inventive people; and as we know that their wise men travelled far in search of the sources of their knowledge in letters and learning; so we may with little risk infer, that other branches of knowledge were derived from a distance; and that, however the Greeks might improve them, or adapt them to circumstances, yet that their foundation and origin was not in Greece.

AN ACCOUNT OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES ESTABLISHED DURING THE THREE LAST CENTURIES.

Among the innumerable list of European libraries founded between the years 1500 and 1800, the following are the most remarkable.

In Italy, the royal library at Turin; the Ambrosian in Milan, 1609; the Magliabechian in Florence, 1714; the grand ducal at Modena; the grand ducal at Parma; and the royal library at Naples. Those libraries which were established in the preceding centuries, were considerably increased during the period we are treating of. During the French revolutionary war, many of the Italian libraries were plundered of their choicest books and manuscripts.

In Spain, the royal library in the Escorial, 1595; the library at Madrid; the library in the cathedral of Toledo; and the university libraries of Alcalá, and Salamanca.

In France, the royal library at Paris, 1527; the library of St. Geneviève; that of the Fathers of the Oratory, 1611; that of St. Germain des Prés, 1614; the public libraries of Bourdeaux, Lyons, Orleans, Rouen, &c.

In Germany, the senatorial library at Hamburg, 1529; the city library at Augsburg, 1537; that at Nuremberg; the Pauline library at Leipzig; the university library at Jena, 1548; the Electoral library at Dresden, 1588; to which were added, about the middle of the last century, the valuable collections of Counts Bünau and Brühl, the electoral library at Munich, in the 16th century; the Strahof library at Prague; the Brunswick library founded by Augustus the younger, in 1604; afterwards removed to Brunswick, and ultimately to Wolfenbüttel; the royal library at Berlin, 1661; that at Carlsruhe; the Grand Ducal library at Gotha, about 1670; that at Cassel; that at Hannover, 1660; that at Weimar, 1691; the university library at Göttingen; that at Erlangen, 1743; that at Stuttgart, 1765; many monastic libraries in the large Catholic cities, &c.

In the Netherlands the university library at Leyden, 1586; but not properly arranged before the beginning of the 17th century. Those of Utrecht, Franeker, Groningen; the city library at Haarlem; the university library at Leuven; the public ones in Antwerp and Brussels.

In Switzerland, the city library at Zurich; the university library at Basle; that of Bern, the richest of all the Swiss libraries; the public library at Geneva, founded since 1703.

In Great Britain, the royal library of Westminster, instituted at the commencement of the 17th century, by Henry, Prince of Wales, son of James I. During the reign of George

II. it was united to the British Museum, founded in 1752. This museum contains, besides Sir H. Sloane's collection of 40,000 volumes, above 5000 MSS. The library of the Antiquarian Society; the Bodleian and Radcliffe, at Oxford, besides the college libraries; the University, Trinity, &c. at Cambridge; those of Edinburgh and Glasgow; the Royal Institution, in London.

In Denmark: the royal library at Copenhagen, founded by Frederick III. (1648-1670); the university library; that of the knights' academy at Sorol, 1624.

In Sweden: the royal library at Stockholm; those of Upsala, Lund and Obo.

In Prussia: the royal library at Königsberg; that of the university; the city public library; the senatorial library at Dantzic, 1596; and the library of the Gymnasium.

LETTERS ON THE UKRAINE, BY A RUSSIAN GENTLEMAN.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 383.]

LETTER III.

On the Manners and Customs of the Ukrainians.

Simplicity, my dear friend, with all her kindred virtues, is the chief goddess that presides over the customs of the Ukrainians, and directs all their actions, compensating their want of wealth and greatness by the delights of content and innocence.

Cleanliness distinguishes them considerably from all those nations composing the Russian empire, which I have had the opportunity of seeing. Their habitations are remarkably neat, and are white-washed, at least, once a fortnight, within and without. They generally consist of two rooms, connected by a passage, in the front of which is a third chamber, used as a dépôt of valuable family effects. They are mostly built of wood; but in places where that material is scarce they are formed by a sort of double wicker fence, the space between being about a foot, is filled with earth, so as to become a wall; which is afterwards plastered with clay, white-washed inside and outside. The roof is thatched with straw.

The inhabitants are remarkably nice in their victuals, which consist chiefly of two dishes, one called *borshitch*, a species of soup extremely delicious; the other *kasha*, a sort of pudding made of millet, boiled thick and eaten sometimes with milk, and sometimes with *borshitch*. This being a national dish, the method of preparing it may not be uninteresting. They take a quantity of meat, and boil it in *stovets*, water made sour by letting some bread remain in it for several days; they add to it such vegetables as are in season, cabbage in autumn, beet root in winter, young nettles or sorrel in spring, and the tops of the beet root, or of young cabbage.

in summer; after boiling the whole with a small quantity of millet, or flour, they mix with it cream, sour or fresh, as suits their palate or fancy, and eat it with bread cut small, previously dried in an oven. The variety of their cookery, among the better sort of people, is truly astonishing, though, at the same time, it is extremely simple; even the meanest peasant would think it a great privation not to have his victuals cooked twice a day; for such is the amazing fertility of the country, that his appetite can be gratified almost without trouble. It happened within my knowledge, that a young student made a complaint to his father, that the landlady with whom he boarded gave him nothing for supper, but *cold meat* which remained from dinner; and the ground of complaint was considered so serious, that the stripling was immediately removed into another lodging!!

The Ukrainians have a curious way of judging of the merits of their young women. As their bread is made at home, every house has a kneading trough, constructed with a peculiar care, and as this is clean, or otherwise, it becomes the standard by which the domestic virtues of a young female are generally appreciated. The smallest neglect in this point may cost her an advantageous match. This renders the women careful to preserve cleanliness, not only in their household furniture, but in their dress and persons, and in every thing belonging to them, or committed to their care; so that, by their influence, it forms a general characteristic of the inhabitants.

The men's dress does not employ many hands in preparing it; their sheep supply them with hairs, and with summer and winter coats; their horses and oxen with boots and shoes; and their fields of hemp and flax with linen. About the preparation of these articles they are not very particular; and most of them are manufactured in their own families. Their mode of dress is a hat, trimmed with a broad fur, of a young sheep-skin; a loose coat of the same in winter, and of woollen stuff in summer, tied round the waist with a belt; and trowsers gathering upon a string, which is also fastened round the waist; but in summer they generally content themselves with a shirt, and linen trowsers, the shirt sometimes descending over the latter like the Highlander's plaid, and fastening above the waist. They often go without hats, except in rainy weather; and as often without shoes, which, at most, are but an oval piece of thick leather, brought over the foot, and gathered with a thong, which fastens above the ankle; this they call *postoly*.—They wear their hair cropt almost up to the crown, and shaved round the head; which operation is performed likewise on the beard, leaving only the whiskers. This gives them

the appearance of something manly, with a neatness very pleasant to the eye, particularly on some of their holidays, when they take pains to set themselves off to advantage.

The women's upper dress, with a little variation, is in shape the same as that of the men, both in winter and summer. During the latter season, however, they seldom wear any upper dress; the rest consists of a long chemise, having a short collar curiously worked; with a species of petticoat, having a fold on each side, tied above the waist, and called *plachta*, which is of a manufacture peculiar to the country. Towels, always hanging in a room upon a nail, and the chemise, are particular objects of pride among the females, who strive with all their might to excel each other in working them with various colours and figures. Their head-dress is extremely simple and becoming. The hair, which is suffered to grow long, being divided behind into two, and sometimes four parts, all plaited with admirable nicety, is brought round the head, so as to meet in front, where it is tied with a ribbon, or held by a pin, according to fancy; and being studded round with flowers, it forms a beautiful wreath, which gives them a truly pastoral appearance. This, however, applies only to girls, as married women generally wear caps, by which they are distinguished from maidens. Both girls and women, during summer, frequently go bare-footed. In winter they wear boots, but somewhat differing in form from those of the men.

As to the employment of both sexes, there is little difference, except in domestic concerns; whereas, in other countries, the management of the house is generally left to the women.

As the inhabitants subsist chiefly on the produce of the earth, and consequently depend on the cultivation of it, so all the business of farming, except in branches where greater strength and exertion are required, is performed indiscriminately by men and women. The men perform threshing and mowing, being hard labours; but, in return, it is the exclusive province of the women to get up hemp and flax; these, after having gone through the necessary preparatory processes, the women spin in the winter, while their husbands have scarcely any thing to do at that season, unless it be to cut wood for fuel, and tend their cattle. The pay exacted from the people, by their landlords or masters, being inconsiderable, and the wages of labour being chiefly in kind, they work in summer just so much as will enable them to pay the master, and to lay in a good stock of provision for winter, which they spend liberally in eating, drinking, and doing nothing. This has given reason to some to reproach them with idleness; but, my dear friend, ease is the fond-

est wish of our nature, and no man who has enough to supply all his wants will labour, unless forced by necessity, or by interest. In the case before us, one of these is obviated by the natural fertility of the country; the other cannot be said to exist where there is an absolute want of commerce, and where the little surplus produced by the inhabitants is frequently known to rot for want of a market.— This may easily account for one part of the empire starving, while another is actually gorged with plenty. The Ukraine, *i. e.* some parts of it, are so distant from the present channel of commerce, that it will be years before it can reach them, notwithstanding its rapid advance from the Black Sea.

Their antipathy to the Great Russians is imbibed, as it were, with their mother's milk. If a child cries, and is unruly, nothing stills him so effectually as telling him that a Great Russian is coming. I have endeavoured to examine the cause of this antipathy; and I find that it by no means originates in dislike, but in fear, and the apprehension of being cheated. I am sorry that the general behaviour of our countrymen but too well justifies this apprehension. They (the Great Russians) impose on the good nature of the inhabitants, to a shameful and unpardonable degree. They thrive on their hospitality, abundantly supplied with the means by the fertility of the country; and, instead of gratitude, they make their hosts objects of sport and downright imposition. The excesses committed in these parts, by the Russian soldiery in particular, are scarcely credible, and reflect disgrace on the officers who permit them. They take advantage of the ignorance of the inhabitants of their own rights, of the distance in which they are placed from any apparent redress, and of their being scarcely acquainted with the means of obtaining that redress.

As soon as these heedless sons of war find themselves amidst the luxuries of the Ukraine, forming a charming contrast with the sparing gifts of their parent *North*, they become the truest proselytes of Epicurus; consider all the property that can be conveyed into the belly as their own, and the peasant himself as a servant, bound to promote all their wanton pleasure, and gratify, at the expence of every thing, their whimsical and varying appetites. I have seen a private, quartered in a peasant's cottage during winter, who, on being ordered to attend his regiment, which was going to be exercised, peremptorily insisted on the peasant's making a large fire in the straw-yard, that he might warm himself while saddling his horse; a demand with which the peasant was obliged to comply! From this specimen, you may judge what officers may do, who, with a greater power, have more artificial wants.

In a village where I happened to stop, a regiment was quartered for the night. The colonel, much to his credit, having prohibited all exactions and extortions, under pain of the severest punishment, two soldiers laid their heads together to get a good fare without flogging. For this purpose one of them, as soon as he took possession of his lodging, invented a catalogue of dishes of which no one ever dreamed, and, with all the swearing, swaggering, and blustering he was capable of, demanded to have them made. The peasant, after his apologizing for not having the means, and thinking the demand, in which the soldier persisted, highly unreasonable, threatened to complain of him to his officer; when at that moment, the other soldier, personating an officer, enters, as if to inspect the man's behaviour, pretends to be enraged at his conduct, threatens to cane him, and forces him to beg pardon of the peasant, who, penetrated with gratitude towards the one, and soothed into reconciliation with the other, offers all he is possessed of to entertain them both, (the pretended officer having condescended to partake of the meal,) and heaps blessings on his kind guests, who all the while are making a terrible havoc among his poultry, game, and eggs; choking themselves, moreover, with milk, bread, and gin!

The hospitality of the Ukrainians is unbounded. They spare nothing to entertain a traveller, and think it so great a happiness, that they mark the day, and teach their children to remember it as a blessing, that placed them in a situation of exercising the virtue which they consider as the most acceptable to God. I have travelled 100 miles together without being able to spend one farthing, except what I chose to give away.

As there are few inns upon the roads, especially in the remote parts of the Ukraine, the traveller, in case of necessity, must put up in villages: he has only to knock at a window of the first cottage, to be admitted with a hearty welcome. If it be in the day-time, he has so many invitations that he does not know which to accept. Without any expectation of remuneration whatever, each offers his house, and strives to prove that his is the most commodious. In the night time, however, they always take the precaution of asking who you are, that, from your answer and language, they may judge whether you are a Great Russian or no; as in that case, notwithstanding their extreme hospitality, they are very loth to admit you. For this reason I always endeavoured to return a short answer, imitating them as much as possible in their pronunciation; and if I was detected afterwards, my civility, and appearance of a gentleman, always prepossessed them in my favour. This is by no means a difficult task,

as their fear is chiefly of the lower class of Great Russians, such as pedlars, hawkers, and hackney-men, going from place to place, to be hired with their horses and vehicles.—The peasant, having satisfied himself as to his guest, immediately admits him, and takes the vehicle and horses entirely under his care; while his wife instantly sets herself to cooking, making up a bed, and, indeed (often), giving up her own; entertaining you to the best of her power, notwithstanding the lateness of the hour. Many striking instances of hospitality I have experienced; but once particularly in a manner I shall never forget while I live.

Having hired a man to take me from Charkow to Tziun, about the distance of one hundred and twenty wersts, we set off at eight o'clock in the morning. It was in January, in the severest time of winter, and the cold was intense. A tempest suddenly arose, and drove about large flakes of snow, the frozen particles of which, small and hard as dry sand, cut our faces severely, and flew around us so thickly, that we could not see ten yards before us. We lost our way, and wandered at random, the horses sometimes plunging up to the neck in snow, and sometimes labouring to extricate themselves from holes and pits, which, being covered with snow, could not possibly be avoided. I never was in a situation so perilous and desperate. Indeed, we gave ourselves up for lost; and if a spark of hope still lurked within, it was maintained by the uncommon power of our horses. In this manner we continued to struggle during the whole day, without rest or food for the horses, and without any prospect of finding a habitation. A considerable part of the night had already elapsed, and the horses' strength began alarmingly to fail them, when the barking of dogs, and the tolling of a bell, which struck one, proclaimed an asylum at hand. We felt as if risen from the grave. The poor creatures seemed to revive with ourselves; they strove to advance with all the speed their expiring strength would allow them. It was not long before we had the happiness, by pursuing our way in the direction of the noise, of entering a village which proved to be the suburbs of the very town to which we were going.

We stopped, and knocked at the first cottage, which appeared newly built, and only half-finished. The weather was too severe to permit asking questions, and the peasant no sooner awoke than he hurried to open the door, absolutely bare footed, and without any other dress on than his shirt; nor could he be prevailed upon to withdraw till he saw us alight, and get into his friendly cottage, where his virtuous partner was already employed in kindling a fire. He would not allow us to take a single article of provision or

apparel from the sledge; nor would he permit my driver to take away the horses, but cheerfully charged himself with the business, and did not return till he had watered them, fed them, and placed them under shelter. A fowl was boiled, and the best refreshments the family could afford were placed before us; after this we reposed on his own bed, which he entreated us to accept in such a manner, that it was impossible to refuse it, without hurting his feelings. In the morning we arose refreshed, and another repast was served up; we partook of it, and bade adieu to our kind host and hostess, accompanied by their blessings and good wishes, which filled my eyes with the tears of heart-felt gratitude. I pressed them to accept of money, but every offer of that sort was rejected with indignation, and I parted from them with the consciousness of a debt which I shall never be able to discharge; but which, they more wisely observed, while a smile of inward satisfaction was visible on their countenances, "God Almighty will not fail to repay tenfold."

In summer, however, there is not the least necessity of seeking any habitation at night, while travelling. Most travellers having provided themselves with provision at the nearest town, pass their nights generally in the open air, by the side of the road. The country every where abounds with rich pasture, and you are so certain of finding water in almost every valley, that you have only to choose a spot which may appear most commodious; nor are you in any danger of being called to account for encroaching on another man's property, as there is an infinitely greater quantity of grass than the inhabitants can possibly get in, and who, if you stopped to feed forty horses on their lands, would take no notice of it whatever.

It often happens, that a great number of travellers meet together; in which case they stop for the night on some eligible spot, and as they carry raw articles of provision, they mess together, and regale themselves with a hot supper, cooked *sur le champ*; after which they recline on the grass, on a blanket spread on the ground; some gazing on the profusion of stars visible in the heavens, some sleeping, some telling stories, or relating their own adventures; and in this manner I have passed some of the sweetest and happiest hours of my life. There is a peculiar dryness, and mild serenity, in the air of the Ukraine which prevents night-chills, and preserves you from taking cold. I do not remember to have suffered the smallest injury from exposing myself to the night atmosphere, though I frequently slept without a night-cap, and only on a blanket spread on the ground, or in a vehicle without any cover; and, indeed, two or three nights I passed upon the bare grass.

ACCOUNT OF THE MOUNTAIN OF POTOSI.

This mountain, famous throughout the world as an inexhaustible source of wealth, was casually discovered in 1545, by an Indian. As he was following a Vigogne (*camellus vicuna*, Linn.) over the precipices, he caught hold of some shrubs, which gave way; and as the earth was brought down with the roots, the veins of silver were laid open. The mountain is barren, about three Spanish miles in circumference, and 6000 yards above the level of the sea. It is of a sharp conical shape. The interior is now almost hollow, owing to the excavations carried on for so many years, and the exterior appears like a honeycomb, on account of the numerous openings. The richest veins of metal are on the north side; they run in a southern direction.—Owing to the plague in 1720, which carried off innumerable Indian *mitagos* (persons whom every province is obliged to send to work the mines for a limited period), they remained neglected for a long time. In 1737 they were worked afresh, as the king lowered the duties from a fifth to a tenth. According to the most accurate statement, they have produced, from 1545 to 1761, 929 millions of ounces which have paid the duty; and could we verify the quantity taken away in contraband, how much more considerable would the sum be! At present they only yield from four to six mares in each bucket of earth.

The province of Potosi is very mountainous, and the air extremely keen. It is ten leagues in length, and seven in width. It contains many salt mines. The population is estimated at 25,000. The capital of the same name was built in 1545. It stands at the foot of a mountain, and is watered by a riuilet. It contains a mint, six convents, two of which are hospitals, and two nunneries. In the vicinity are some medicinal warm baths.

Alcedo's Geog. Dict.

CURIOUS ANECDOTE OF MARY OF SAVOY, WIFE OF ALPHONSO, KING OF PORTUGAL.

General Dumouriez, in his late publication of *The Campaigns of Marshal Schomberg in Portugal*, has communicated an anecdote of no little interest to those who delight in the secret history of courts.

While that consummate General was in Portugal, in the years 1667, 1668, the King Alphonso was married to Mary of Savoy, a princess of French extraction by the mother's side. But the King was either unwise, or savage, or both; and without believing more than half what historians have reported of him, there yet remains enough to prove, that he was defective both in mind and body. His mother had perceived his imbecility, and had

destined the crown to his younger brother, Don Pedro. Alphonso remembering this, treated his brother harshly: he also treated his Queen rudely, and hereby produced a sympathy between the sufferers, which was not calculated to rest in mere commiseration. The confessor of the Queen was a Jesuit; the confessor of Don Pedro was a Jesuit also. The sway of these holy fathers was equally prevalent in politics, and in religion, over the consciences of their charge; while their regard to the promotion of the power of their order was insuperable, incessant, and indefatigable. These confessors, well acquainted with the secrets of their penitents, plotted to give the state a new King, and the Queen a new husband, by raising Don Pedro to the throne. This, at length, they effected. They deceived and terrified the King's Minister, the Comte of Castelnethor, into flight; they spread reports which alienated the minds of the people from their sovereign, who was, at length, arrested, dethroned, divorced, and his place supplied by his brother.

During the discussions necessary to bring about this revolution, the Queen was advised to consult the Duke of Schomberg, as to measures to be taken. The Jesuit confessor informed the general of the situation of things at court; but the Protestant soldier did not at once enter into the intentions of the Catholic churchman; neither eloquence nor subtilties convinced him: however, a correspondence was established between the Duke and the Queen, which, of course, was conducted with the utmost privacy. One evening, very late, the Queen received a long letter, wherein the Duke had given his advice, with full detail of particulars, on the subject entrusted to him. As the night was advanced, the Queen retired to bed, sent away her women, under pretence of certain devotions which had been enjoined her, got into bed, read the letter, and went to sleep. In the morning, before she was risen, she received notice that the King was already waiting for her in the chapel. As it was the custom to hear mass together, kneeling at the same desk, she dressed herself in all haste, yet could not arrive before the elevation of the host; she was, consequently, obliged to hear a second mass, while the King, who had performed his duty, quitted the chapel.

Scarcely had the King left the place, when the Queen recollected the letter from the Duke of Schomberg, which she had left in her bed. Terrified at the thought, she imparted her situation and heedlessness, to her confessor, who was kneeling beside her. He instantly took on himself the office of securing this dangerous communication, and ran in all speed to the Queen's apartment. But, what was his confusion, when informed that the King was there!

As the confessor was not privileged to enter the Queen's sleeping apartment in her absence, he stopped a moment at the door to listen, and overheard the King walking about the room very hastily, and speaking with great warmth to the Countess of Castelmehor, the first lady of the bed-chamber to the Queen, and mother of the Prime Minister.

The confessor returned with this terrific account; on which, the Queen, in great consternation, committed the business to one of her ladies, in whom she confided. But, when this lady entered the chamber, she beheld the King lying along on the Queen's bed.

There remained now no resource but in the Queen herself, who must run every risque.—But the mass was not ended; and to have withdrawn before its close, would have occasioned infinite scandal. The confessor, in this extremity, advised her to feign sickness: she suddenly swooned away, and was carried in this condition to her chamber.

The King, alarmed and affected at this sight, ordered the Queen's bed to be made instantly. This was the only incident wanting to change the Queen's feigned swoon into a paroxysm of despair; she, therefore, appeared to revive a little, and, in the feeblest accents, intreated to be placed on the bed, just as it was. When there, she felt all around her, and, at length, found the fatal letter which had caused her so much misery. It had not been detected, because it had remained covered by her night-clothes! She therefore recovered, by little and little, from her well-acted fainting, and her real horrors.

Such are the risques attendant on confidential communications, and intrigues at Courts!

SPANISH STOICISM AND SENSIBILITY.

[From the same Work.]

D'Ablancourt relates a remarkable instance of Spanish character, as combined of stoicism and sensibility.

During the pillage and burning of the Spanish town of Alqueria de la Puebla, by the Portuguese forces, under the Duke of Schomberg, in 1666, a Spaniard, who had lost his all in the conflagration, and was seeking shelter where he could find it, stopped to listen to a Portuguese horseman, posted as a sentinel before the church, who was tinkling his guitar, which was but too discordant. The Spaniard, perceiving this defect, very politely requested the Portuguese to lend him his instrument. After having rectified it, and ascertained its correctness, he returned it very civilly, and gravely resumed his progress, observing, *Agora es templada*—"Now it is in tune."

HISTORY AND VIEW OF THE TEA TRADE, FROM AUTHENTIC DOCUMENTS.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. pp. 147, 346.]

It is on all hands agreed, that the introduction of Coffee into this country, took place prior to that of Chocolate or Tea. The difference, however, between each, must, in point of time, have been so trifling, as scarcely to admit of a distinction. It has been held by many respectable authorities, such as Houghton, Anderson, Ellis, and others, that Coffee was first brought to England in 1652, by Mr. Daniel Edwards, a member of the Turkey Company, and that his servant (Pasqua, a Greek) was the first who opened a house for publicly vending it as a drink, after the manner practiced in Turkey,* but from the following extracts which have been selected

* Extract from a collection of periodical Papers on the Improvement of Husbandry and Trade, published by John Houghton, F.R.S. vol. iii, p. 30. May 16, 1701.

Into public-houses in Turkey, where Coffee was drank, the people would come by hundreds, and among them, strangers would venture, where they learned the custom, and carried it to their own countries: for one Rastall whom I knew, and within these few days I saw, went to Leghorn in 1651, and there found a Coffee-house. To the same house of merchandize where this Rastall was, came Mr. Daniel Edwards, a merchant from Smyrna (where Coffee had been used immemorially), who brought with him a Greek servant, named Pasqua, anno 1652, who made his Coffee, which he drank two or three dishes at a time, twice or thrice a day, and that year came overland to England, and married the daughter of Alderman Hodges, who lived in Walbrook, and there with delight they drank Coffee together; and this Edwards was the first I can learn, brought the use of Coffee hither, except it was the famous inventor of the circulation of the blood, Dr. Harvey, who some say, did frequently use it. After this, Edwards set up Pasqua for a Coffee-man, in a shed in the church-yard, in St. Michael, Cornhill, which is now a scrivener's brave house, where, having great custom, the ale-sellers petitioned the Lord-mayor against him, as being no freeman. This made Alderman Hodges join his coachman, Bowman, who was free, Pasqua's partner, and thus Mr. Rastall found them in 1654. But Pasqua for some misdemeanour was forced to run the country, and Bowman by his trade, and a contribution of 1000 sixpences, turned the shed to a house. Bowman's apprentices were first, John Painter, then Humphry, from whose wife I had this account.

from the life of Mr. Anthony Wood, a celebrated antiquarian, and whose testimony, I am given to understand, is held to be worthy of credit, it appears that a coffee-house had been opened at Oxford a year or two sooner.

Extracts from the Life of Mr. Anthony à Wood.*

1651. This year one Jacob, a Jew, opened a Coffee-house at the Angel in the parish of St. Peter in the East, Oxon, and there it was by some who delighted in *noveltie*, drank. When he left Oxon he sold it in Old Southampton Buildings in Holborne, neare London, and was living there: 1671.

1654. Cirques Jobson, a Jew and Jacobite, borne neare Mount Libanus, sold Coffey in Oxon in an house between Edmund Hall and Queen's College Corner. A note says, "this is thus read in the diary, viz. Coffey which had been drank by some persons in Oxon, 1650, was this yeare (1654) publicly sold at or neare the Angel, within the east gate of Oxon, as also Chocolate by an Outlander or a Jew."

1656. In this yeare, Arthur Tillyard, apothecary, and great royalist, sold Coffey publicly in his house, against All Souls College. He was encouraged so to do by some royalists. This Coffee-house continued till his Majesty's returne and after, and then they became more frequent, and had an excise set upon Coffey.

The love of novelty is a predominant feature in the British character. Coffee no sooner became known, than it was eagerly sought after as a fashionable beverage, and houses were opened in various parts of the metropolis, as also in other parts of the kingdom, for vending it as a public drink, to which quickly succeeded Chocolate, Sherbet, and Tea. I have been favoured by Mr. Twining with the perusal of the poem written on Tea by Nahum Tate, referred to in one of the preceding notes. This book originally belonged to Dr. Lort, and on the blank leaf at the beginning, is an entry in the Doctor's hand-writing, as follows:

"Mr. Samuel Pepys, in his manuscript diary, in the Pepysian Library at Cambridge, says, September 25, 1661, I sent for a cup of Tea (a China drink), of which I had never drank before, and went away."

These authorities are satisfactory to my mind that Tea was originally drank in the public Coffee-houses, in common with Coffee, Chocolate, and Sherbet. In proportion as the Coffee-houses were frequented, the Taverns became deserted, and Government finding a sensible diminution in the duty upon Wines, judged it necessary that the deficiency should be made up by a tax on the liquors consumed in the Coffee-houses, as also that those houses

should be placed under a similar degree of restraint, with Taverns and Ale-houses, by requiring the keepers of them to take out a licence at the Quarter Sessions, and enter into security for the due payment of the excise duty. If they neglected to do this, they were liable to a penalty of £5 per month.

The Excise officers attended the Coffee-houses at stated periods, and took an account of the number of gallons of each liquid that were made, upon which the duties were charged. This practice existed till 1689, when "it being found by experience, that collecting the Excise duty upon the liquors of Coffee, Tea, and Chocolate, was troublesome and unequal upon the retailers, and required such an attendance of officers, as rendered the receipt thereof very inconvenient," (so says the preamble to the Act 1. William and Mary, sess. 2. ch. 6) it was resolved to discontinue it, and in lieu thereof to establish an additional Custom duty of five shillings per pound.

It is very doubtful, whether there are any records in existence, either at the Custom House or the Excise Office, that will shew the quantities of Tea that were imported during this period, or the number of gallons of Tea on which the excise duty was paid; but it may be reasonably concluded, they must have been very trifling, from the high price it bore, which was from forty to fifty shillings the pound at the first hand.

That Tea was considered as a scarce and valuable article in 1664, may be gathered from the following entries in the Company's records.

Extracts from the Minutes of the Courts of Committees.

1664. July 1.—Ordered, That the Master Attendant do go aboard the ships now arrived, and inquire what rarities of birds, beasts, or other curiosities there are on board, fit to present to his Majesty, and to desire they may not be disposed of, till the Company are supplied with such as they may wish, on paying for the same.

1664. August 29.—The Governor acquainting the Court, that the factors having in every place failed the Company of such things as they writ for, to have presented His Majesty with, and that His Majesty might not find himself wholly neglected by the Company, he was of opinion, if the Court thought fit, that a silver case of the oil of cinnamon, which was to be had of Mr. Thomas Winter for £75, and some good TEA, be provided for that end, which he hopes may be acceptable. The Court approved very well thereof.

In consequence of this resolution, the Secretary was directed to obtain some TEA, and on the 30th September, 1664, there is in the general books an entry, that

* Lives of Hearne, Leland and Wood, Oxford, 1772, 2 vol. 8vo.

Several accounts oweth to John Stannion the Secretary.

Presents.	For a case containing six China bottles, headed with silver	£13 0 0
	More for 2lb. 2 ozs. of THEA for His Majesty	4 5 0
		£17 5 0

On the 30th of June, 1666, there is also a similar entry of *several rarities* chiefly the productions of China, provided by the Secretary as presents for His Majesty, amongst which are

22½lb of THEA, at 50 shillings per lb.	£56 17 6
For the two cheefe persons that attended his Majesty's person, THEA	6 15 0

There are also about the same period, various entries of small purchases of from 6lb. to 8lb. at a time, for the use of the Court of Committees, bought of the Coffee-house keepers.

At this period, as has been before observed, the Company held no trading intercourse with China.

In 1635, some persons, under the authority of a grant from Charles I. (which was a manifest infringement of the Company's charter) set on foot a voyage thither, and actually reached Canton; but, owing to the jealousies and intrigues of the Portuguese and Dutch, they were eventually ruined.

Various attempts were also made in subsequent periods by the Company, to carry on a trade with China, and factories were established on several of the islands, which border on that continent, as Tywan, Tonquin, Amoy, &c. but they were all eventually withdrawn, not answering the expense of their maintenance.

The first importation of Tea made by the Company, appears to have been,

	lb. ozs.
In 1669, when two cannisters were received from the factors at Bantam, weighing	143 8
In 1670, they received four pots	79 6
	222 14

Of this, 132½lb. being damaged, was sold at their sale, 3s. 2d. per lb. and the remainder was consumed by the Court of Committees.

	lb. ozs.
In 1671, there were also received from Bantam, which is stated to be part of the Tywan present, 2 peculs, or	264 0

In 1673-4 it appears, the Company bought of several persons 55lb. 10 oz. (one of whom was Thomas Garraway, the master of the Coffee-house that still retains his name), some of which appears to have been distributed as presents, and the rest was consumed by the Court of Committees.

In 1675-6 and 7, there were no imports, nor any purchases

	lb.	lb.
1678 There were imported		
from Gangan	885	} 4,713
Surat	3,828	
1679 From Bantam		197
1680 Surat		143
1681		
1682		70
	Total	5,123

All of which appears to have been sold at different periods, from 11s. 6d. to 12s. 4d. per lb.

1683 ?	
1684 {	No imports.
1685 From Madras and Surat	12,070

In this year the whole of the Chinese provinces and the adjacent islands having been subdued by the Tartars, the Emperor issued an edict for permitting a trade with Europeans.

1686 The imports were	65
1687 Do. from Surat	4,995
1688 Do. Do.	1,666
1689 Do. Amoy and Madras, . .	25,300
1690 Do. Surat	41,471
1691 Do. Permission Trade, . .	13,750
In 1692 The imports from Madras and Permission Trade	18,379
1693 Do. Do.	711
1694 Do. Do.	352
1695 Do. Do.	132
1696 Do. Do.	70

The above are taken from the Old East-India Company's books. In 1695 Tea and Spices were allowed to be imported from Holland by License. A new Company was established in 1698. In 1702 both Companies were united, but the union was not finally completed till 1708. The annual imports from 1697 to 1708 inclusive, are taken from the Custom-House Books, and are as follow:

	From Holland. lb.	From the East-Indies. lb.
1697	126	22,290
1698	—	21,302
1699	20	13,201
1700	236	90,947

lb.
The average of the last four years
per annum 36,935

Such appears to have been the state of the Tea Trade in Great Britain at the close of the seventeenth century, at which time it was nearly, if not altogether unknown in the sister kingdoms of Scotland and Ireland. I have heard it related upon good authority, that, somewhere about 1685, the widow of the unfortunate Duke of Monmouth sent a pound of Tea as a present to some of her noble relatives in Scotland, but having omitted to send the needful directions for its use, the Tea was boiled, the liquor thrown away, and the leaves were served up at table as a vegetable. It is needless to add, that in this way the rarity was not very highly esteemed.

From 1701 the progress of the trade appears to have been as follows:

	From the Holland.	From the East-Indies.
	lb.	lb.
In 1701 Imports were	—	66,738
1702	9	37,052
1703	—	77,974
1704	32	63,109
1705	17	6,722
1706	20	137,748
1707	509	31,700

The average of these seven years is 60,149lb.

From 1708 to 1800, the quantities sold at the Company's Sales are stated yearly: I shall here only exhibit what appears to be the average per annum in the undermentioned periods.

	lb.
1708 to 1712 Average per an.	136,088
1713 — 1721 . . do.	290,276
1722 — 1723 . . do.	919,628
1724 — 1733 . . do.	724,276
1734 — 1744 . . do.	1,519,291
1745 — 1747 . . do.	1,756,593
1748 — 1759 . . do.	2,558,081
1760 — 1767 . . do.	4,333,267
1768 — 1772 . . do.	8,075,794
1773 — 1783 . . do.	5,820,723
1784	10,148,257
1785	15,081,737
1786 — 1794	16,964,957
1795 — 1796 . . do.	19,929,258
1797	18,076,106
1798	22,849,451
1799	24,077,422
1800	23,378,816

Thus it appears, that within the short space of 160 years, the consumption of Tea in Great Britain, notwithstanding the obstacles it has had to contend against, has been gradually

increasing from a very few pounds, till it has reached the astonishing extent of twenty-five millions of pounds per annum, and probably it is capable of being carried still further. It may be literally said to have descended from the palace to the cottage, and from a fashionable and expensive luxury, has been converted into an essential comfort, if not an absolute necessary of life; or as a Right Honourable Statesman has well observed, "though it may be deemed an artificial necessary, it is become a necessary that few would be disposed to relinquish."* I am disposed, however, to go farther, and viewing the subject on all points and bearings, I feel no difficulty in offering it as my opinion, that Tea is an article which in the existing state of circumstances, could not possibly be dispensed with. Tea forms the morning's repast of almost every family in the kingdom. I know there are those who think the use of Tea is injurious to the lower orders of the people, and that the portion of their small earnings, which they expend in its purchase, would be better employed in procuring more substantial food. Of such persons I would take the liberty of asking—were Tea to be abolished, what could be substituted in the room of it? I may perhaps be told, why not go back to the articles that were in use before the introduction of Tea? Of what these consisted, some idea may be gathered from extracts, which I have been permitted to copy from a scarce and curious book, in the possession of John Liptrop, Esq. of Mile End. [Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 147.]

Can it for a moment be imagined that the amiable females of the present Royal Family would give up their Tea and muffins, for wine and beer, chins of beef, mutton bones, herrings, and sprats? The reader will readily anticipate the answer. Would the nobility, the gentry, the merchants, the traders, do it? To a certainty, not. Would the lower orders of the people? Perhaps most readily, if the substitutes were within their reach. But from the present high price of provisions it is feared but little animal food falls to their lot; admitting however, that no difficulty existed with regard to the eatables, some kind of drink would be required.

Taking the annual sales of Tea at twenty-five millions of pounds, and allowing that five millions of these are exported to Ireland, the West-Indies, &c. there will be left for the consumption of England and Scotland twenty millions. This quantity, allowing an ounce to give an infusion of two quarts, will afford one hundred and sixty millions of gallons of liquor.

* Mr. Dundas' speech on the finances of the East-India Company, of the 28th March, 1800.

The population of England and Scotland I am disposed to consider at ten millions and a half of souls, and reckoning that only two-thirds or seven millions of these drink tea, the quantity of one hundred and sixty millions of gallons will be found to be equal to little more than half a pint for each person per day.

It may probably be objected, that the number of persons who consume tea is over rated; if so, I trust it will, on the other hand, be allowed, that the ratio of half a pint for each person per day is far below the actual quantum, considering the great number of persons who are in the habit of taking it twice a day. The data may be varied; but I am satisfied the result is sufficiently correct for the purposes to which it is intended to be applied.

If the use of tea were to be abolished, the only wholesome articles which present themselves as substitutes are beer and milk; and of these it may be reasonably conjectured the preference would be given to beer.

Dr. Smith, in his *Wealth of Nations*,* says: "In London, a quarter of malt is commonly brewed into two and a half and sometimes into three barrels of porter; and and in the country brewery for common sale the like quantity is seldom made into less than two barrels of strong, and one of small beer, and frequently into two barrels and a half of strong beer."

One hundred and sixty millions of gallons of beer are equal to 4,444,444 barrels of thirty-six gallons each. This quantity, reckoning a quarter of malt to every three barrels, will require 1,481,481 quarters, or 11,851,848 bushels of malt.

John Middleton, Esq. in the very able and intelligent Report of the County of Middlesex, presented by him to the Board of Agriculture, says, "an acre of land sown with barley will yield, on an average, three quarters, or 24 bushels, after allowing 4 bushels for seed." Barley, I understand, when made into malt, increases in bulk about one-eighth, that is, eight bushels of barley will yield nine of malt, so that 1,481,481 quarters of malt will be obtained from 1,316,872 quarters of barley. This quantity, in the ratio of three quarters to the acre, will require an addition of 438,957 acres of land more than at present in cultivation to be kept constantly laid down in barley only.

Mr. Middleton, in calculating the produce of corn from a given quantity of arable land, says, "To this must be added a proportionate quantity of land for fallow, one-third, and the like quantity for clover and root crops."

Upon this datum, to 438,957 acres there must be added two-thirds more, 292,368,

which will increase the quantity to 731,595 acres.

The number of horses that would be required to cultivate 731,595 acres of arable land, as also the further portion necessary to produce corn for their maintenance, reckoning after the manner adopted by Mr. Middleton, of one horse to every fifteen acres of arable land, and that each horse consumes the produce of two acres in corn, is 56,278, and the quantity of land 112,556 acres, which, added to the former quantity of 731,595, gives 844,151 acres. This portion, allowing for contingencies, such as hedge rows, scites of buildings, farm yards, roads, ponds, gravel-pits, &c. may, for the sake of round numbers, be assumed at 900,000 acres.

As these calculations are made upon an average produce of the inclosed lands in their present improved state of cultivation, and the additional quantity must of course be taken from the commons, which are inferior in point of quality, at least one-fourth more should be added; so that, upon the whole, to furnish a supply of beer, equal in extent to the liquor produced from Tea, would require in addition to the lands now in cultivation, 1,125,000 acres, or equal to 1750 square miles.

In milk the result would be still more unfavourable. I have supposed that half a pint of strong beer would be deemed equivalent to half a pint of Tea, but I am inclined to think, that of milk at least double that quantity would be necessary. In this ratio an annual supply of milk would be required to the extent of three hundred and twenty millions of gallons.

Holt, in his *Agricultural Report of Lancashire*, mentions "an account being taken of milk given by one hundred cows in one year, from the 1st of May, 1790, to the 30th April, 1791; the quantity of which was found to be 271,270 quarts." Three hundred and twenty millions of gallons are equal to 1280 millions of quarts, to produce which would require 471,854 cows. A cow is supposed to consume in hay and grass the produce of three acres of land; then 471,854 cows will require the feed of 1,415,562 acres. This quantity, allowing for the number of horses that would be required to cultivate them, at one horse for every 100 acres of grass land, and the portion of arable and grass land necessary to raise their food, at the rate of two acres of corn and two acres of grass for each horse, will be extended to 1,480,878 acres, which, with the contingencies before enumerated, may be reckoned at 1,550,000 acres. To this also add, as before, one-fourth for the land being inferior to the enclosures, and the total quantity will be given at 1,937,500 acres, or 3027 square miles.—[To be continued.]

* Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, vol. 3. p. 363.

† Middleton's *View of the State of Agriculture in Middlesex*, London, 1798, p. 483.

* Holt's *Lancashire*, page 157.

MEMOIRS OF THE LATE RUSSIAN GENERAL,
MELISSIMO.

This name will long be venerated in Russia. He was descended from a Cephalaonian family, and boasted of his Greek origin. The Russian artillery is particularly indebted to him for his essential services; and he is not in fault if it has not been carried to the degree of perfection it is still capable of receiving. He was equally versed in every branch of military tactics. Uniting an extensive practice to scientific theory, he had studied every thing, and examined a great deal. A good chemist, an excellent mechanic, a clever artificer, and a complete artillerist, every profession became alternately the object of his application. He attracted to Russia, and modelled on his plan, many foreign officers and German workmen: he cultivated letters at the same time, and had a decided taste for the French theatre. A clear discernment and an exquisite sensibility, supplied the place of more particular studies, which circumstances had denied him. He spoke fluently and correctly the Russian, French, and Italian; he could explain himself in modern Greek and Turkish, and understood Latin and English. Magnificent and well-bred, his military fêtes, his camps, his parties, his orgies even, and his follies, will long be recorded. As a solace in declining years, he instituted a Philadelphic Society: it occasioned denunciations which Catherine II. ridiculed, and Paul treated seriously. He was Grand Master of the masonic order in Russia, and founder of various lodges. The Empress being jealous of those meetings, sent for Melissimo, and received a promise from him that he would neither frequent nor patronize the lodges any longer. He kept his word.

Melissimo had been educated in the land cadet corps, where he persuaded his comrades to act plays: they formed a small company, which embellished the fêtes of that military institution, and attracted the attention of the court and of the city. The Empress Elizabeth, hearing a great deal of the talents and distinguished air of young Melissimo, wished to see him and his associates perform. She was so much gratified with his character of Orosman, that she erected a theatre in the palace, where those young officers used frequently to represent French pieces. This was the origin of the French theatre, which was afterwards established; and even of a national one. Melissimo afterwards became director of the theatres at Petersburg, and they never were so brilliant as when under his inspection.

His fine figure gained the good graces of Elizabeth; and his martial exploits were rewarded with honours and titles under the

reign of Catherine. To his bravery and presence of mind Count Roumanzov owed the victory at the famous battle of Kagul. At the peace, his grand fire-works gained him pecuniary remunerations, of which he was always in need; many that he was commissioned to execute amounted to 100,000 livres. Having seized some Turkish batteries in Moldavia, Catherine made him a present of the guns, with permission to convert them into the coinage of the country. Of the money thus collected he sent 100,000 roubles to his wife; she purchased an estate with them, and that was the only property the General possessed; yet his appointments, and the facility of incurring debts, enabled him to live like a nobleman, and to keep open house, where all strangers, and particularly artists, were well received.

Full of activity and zeal, he regretted that the artillery in Russia was declining daily, while it was improving in other armies. He presented different memorials on the subject, which were either not read or neglected, and it mortified him extremely. He solicited as a favour what they should have asked of him; but, in Russia, as elsewhere, the good of the state is considered by men in power as of a secondary nature. Melissimo had enemies, or rather rivals, whom his real merit placed in the shade. They could not forgive his being a foreigner, and he was thwarted. He succeeded, however, in placing the cannon foundries on a good footing, he improved the composition of the metal by the invention of the alloy that bears his name, and introduced a new method of boring guns, in spite of all the obstacles which beset him, as well as the difficulties of the art. It was solely by rich presents to the Minister of War, and to favourites, that he obtained permission to be useful to his country.

At the death of General Muller, who was killed at the siege of Kilia, in 1790, Melissimo, being Lieutenant-General, and Director General of the cadet corps of artillery, was, by right, at the head of the whole Russian artillery. Yet the favourite Zoubow, who had never seen a bomb thrown, and was even ignorant of the composition of gunpowder, was appointed Grand Master of artillery.—The old General, however, endeavoured to flatter the young man, and proposed raising a corps of horse artillery. Lieutenant-Colonel Masson was requested to draw up a plan, which was laid before the Empress. She approved of it, but refused the necessary funds for executing it. Melissimo in vain endeavoured to interest the favourite's self-love, and induce him to persuade himself that he was the author of it, and that such an establishment would render his administration illustrious. Zoubow, as presumptuous as indifferent, received the reports of the old warrior,

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while extended on his couch, having his teeth cleaned by his dentist, without addressing him, without rising, frequently without making signs to him to sit down, and without casting his eyes on the plans which Melissimo was labouring to explain. Nothing could repress his ardent desire of utility, and of communicating the knowledge he had acquired. He even appeared insensible to the affront of seeing his white hairs humbled by waiting in the anti-rooms of those young upstarts, who were scarcely worthy of darkening his doors.

At last he was permitted to carry his plan into execution. In less than six months, owing to his indefatigable spirit, Russia had four companies of horse artillery, well mounted, well disciplined, and manœuvring with a celerity truly admirable. Paul I. who was prejudiced against that kind of flying artillery would not allow his army to make use of it against the French; and the loss of the battle of Zurich may be chiefly attributed to that cause.

We know that the Emperor dismissed Zoubow when he succeeded to the crown; and Melissimo was again acting as Grand Master of artillery. Paul added to his orders the blue ribbon, and presented him with a thousand peasants; but this general officer, when passed the age of 70, was again overwhelmed with grief. His only son, colonel of a regiment of dragoons, was shamefully dismissed, owing to some accusations which were never investigated; and his niece, married to Lieutenant-Colonel Masson, was obliged to quit him to follow her husband, who was equally the victim of a deep-laid plot. Despair and melancholy soon deprived Melissimo of his health, and of that indefatigable activity which distinguished his fine old age. He only languished, and a fresh whim of Paul's killed him. This is the story.

The Emperor, while walking through the city, perceived an officer, who, instead of waiting at the corner of the street to prostrate himself before his Majesty, according to the etiquette prescribed, slipped into an alley, and made off. Paul ordered him to be pursued, but in vain; they could learn only that he was an officer of artillery. The Emperor, highly enraged, sent for Melissimo, who was very ill. The weather was extremely severe, yet the old man, accustomed to obey and to command, rose and went to the palace, not knowing what important order he was about to receive. Paul, after reproaching him for the insolence and want of discipline in an officer of artillery, insisted on the General's discovering him, and making an immediate example of him. Melissimo, thunderstruck at the news, could scarcely get into his carriage to return home, where he went to bed, and died two days afterwards.

Such was the end of a man who may be

considered, in some degree, as the Richelieu of Russia. Catherine railed at his luxury and extravagance. "I have," said she, "two men whom I never could content. One is General Melissimo, whom I cannot enrich; and the other is General Chklebow, whom I never could satisfy." It must be observed, that Catherine dined at one o'clock, and had nothing to suit the taste of an epicure.—Chklebow and some others, after dining with the Empress, went home to a second repast.

COLLECTANEA OF BRITISH ANTIQUITIES.

No. IV.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 303.]

To obtain correct ideas of the state and manners of the Britons before the landing of Caesar is by no means easy; and the description which that General gives of the inhabitants of this island is extremely limited and defective. Those who visited Britain as merchants were more attentive to acquisition of gain than to obtaining of knowledge; it is likely, also, that they did not penetrate far into the island, nor, perhaps, did they even run down the coast to any great extent. They traded, very naturally, with such parts as were their immediate neighbours; but, business over, their inquiries closed. A few Druidical devotees did, no doubt, visit an island which they esteemed holy; but the secrecy of their order divulged nothing to gratify the inquisitive. Travellers for curiosity, in ancient ages, directed their steps rather eastward than westward, nor did they think of gathering up information from among those whom they esteemed uncivilized, for the benefit of those who might, in future times, attain to degrees of civilization much beyond their own. A visit to Britain was attended with some hazard and more trouble; and the Roman General who first attempted to explore rather than to conquer, this separated country, could procure no other information concerning it than what the reports of a few sailors and traffickers afforded. But we are not, therefore, to suppose that the Britons had little communication with Gaul; it is certain that they had sent to the continent a considerable force to oppose the progress of the Roman arms, and had supported their brethren fighting against Caesar as much as circumstances permitted them.

This must, however, be restricted to those who inhabited the coast opposite to Gaul, principally; for the island was peopled by several races of inhabitants; and we have no reason to believe, that those of the interior would take a lively interest in the concerns of any beside their immediate neighbours.

The southern parts of the island were cultivated; but the general character of the Bri-

tons was that of a pastoral people; their flocks were their riches, and these they drove, according to the seasons, from one feeding station to another. The agriculturist is fixed to a place, for a time at least, by the necessity of waiting for the result of his labours.—Whoever has sown is unwilling to depart till after he has reaped; and where he has gathered the most abundant harvests he, at length establishes his residence. But, the herdsman, deriving all from the ground, without committing any thing to it, changes the scene of his attention, and forgets, in the attractions of novelty, the accommodations of his late abode.

The chief support of the Britons was derived from their kine, their sheep, and their swine. They abstained from fish altogether: they held it unlawful to eat hares, hens, or geese, yet they did not scruple the breeding of them, by way of amusement. The cattle of a whole tribe were usually kept together; and an appointed number of persons were detached to attend them. This party sometimes amounted to 400 men, and the herd, not seldom, consisted of 20,000 head of cattle.

There can be no doubt but that milk was a principal part of the food of the Britons; yet there is every reason to believe that they also ate considerable quantities of flesh. The effect and nature of the climate of their island may be taken as a probable proof of this.—They were fond of horses, and skilled in the art of training them. Their horses, too, must have been of a good breed. Dogs also, no doubt, they trained, as necessary for the purposes of pastors. As their exhilarating beverage was mead, they must have kept many bees; and the productions of these laborious insects supplied their masters with more than one enjoyment. Trade they had no other than what consisted in the exchange of the raw productions of their country, for manufactured articles. Skins, no doubt, they had many to dispose of; metals, tin, lead, iron, some native silver, and some gold: but whether they parted with the latter metals, or wrought them into ornaments themselves, may be doubted. It is certain that they wore ornaments; beads of amber, of glass, as well as of gold, have been found in their sepulchres; but these might be procured by exchange.

The Britons were divided into states, tribes, and families.

The individuals of every family participated in the rights of the family, according to the degree of their relation to the head of it.—The children of each marriage shared the property equally among them; if there was no child, the relatives of the first and second degrees received this advantage. We have seen, in a former number, that kindred ex-

tended to the *sixth* degree, and the laws of Hoel, which we have quoted, say “that there is not an appropriate name for relationship beyond that degree;” yet it is generally understood, that kindred extended to the *ninth* degree; and that all who desired to maintain the privileges of natives were obliged to establish, at least, this degree of kindred; since those who failed were reduced to the condition of aliens.

Each family was responsible for the proper conduct of its members; and therefore the maintenance of kindred was of great importance, since each was to other in the nature of a security, and of a responsible party. If any one insulted a member of another family, such misdemeanor was punished by a *fine*, levied not only from the party offending, but from his near kin, upon whom it acted as a kind of punishment for not having better taught their kinsman. It was received also, and divided as a pacificatory donation among the members of that family which had been insulted in the person of one of its relatives, and they no longer felt themselves aggrieved, or their powers and right of *protection* violated.

A tribe comprised a number of families, and the head of the tribe was its sovereign; his sway was, indeed, truly patriarchal.—Age was the criterion of dignity; and the headship of the tribe passed from one family to another according to this distinction.

But though each tribe was a state independent within itself, yet the tribes sometimes united when they were pressed by danger; and the heads of the tribes usually selected, from among themselves, the oldest member of their body to become their director; and, as we may say, their sovereign.

At the time of Caesar's invasion several tribes agreed in choosing Caswallon (*Casibellanus*) for their chief and commander; but there is reason to think, that the whole nation did not meet in general deputation; that the sufferings of the South were little impressive on the inhabitants of the North or of the West; and that the spirit of rivalry, not to call it animosity, was too prevalent in the island. This is, in some degree, accounted for by the circumstance of there being several nations resident in Britain. The customs and peculiarities of these might differ, their interests might clash, or other causes might render them less desirous of promoting the welfare of each other, than they would have been had they descended from one common stock.

At the time of the Roman invasion the number of independent states was about *forty-five*. Of these not more than three or four united to oppose the enemy. These were, for certain, the *Cantii*, or Kentish men; the *Regni*, or inhabitants of Surrey and Sussex; whose name is analyzed into *Rhy-Cantii*;

and perhaps a few spirited individuals from other districts.

Agricultural and pastoral nations have fewer occasions of wars than commercial states, yet among even these the flames of discord will kindle and burn, too, with fury.

The Britons are commended by Cæsar for the intrepidity with which they advanced to battle—a sure sign of having been inured to arms; a habit resulting not from rare, but from frequent recurrence, occasions in which valour was roused to the desire of distinction, and derived honour from becoming conspicuous. They are described by other writers as not merely warlike, but as delighting in war; they sought the combat, and rejoiced in the contest. They were generally armed lightly with a spear and a shield, but some of them were both dexterous and vigorous in throwing stones. Their women, too, were brave, nor did they desert the post of danger when it was filled by those whom affection commanded them to assist.

They had various institutions among them of a social and religious description; they had also letters, notwithstanding what has been affirmed to the contrary; and some among them were even learned, though learning was not a general characteristic of the nation.

DESCRIPTION OF ST. DAVID'S ISLANDS, IN
THE PASSAGE TO CHINA.

By Captain Barclay.—Published for general information.

To John Shore, Esq. Sec. to Hon. Company's
Marine Board, Calcutta.

Sir,—Induced from having touched at St. David's Islands, in the North Pacific Ocean, in our way to China, in the Mangles, and not knowing of any correct account yet being obtained of their danger, natives, &c., I beg permission to present you with a short description, and a small chart of them.

The best account yet given of them, is by Capt. Williams, when commanding the Hon. Comp. ship *Thames*, he saw them on his passage home from China, coming the Eastern route. He places them from latitude 1° S. to 0° 55' S. their longitude from 134. 17 E. to 134. 25 E; which, at the distance he passed them, must be considered as very accurate. By a good observation, at noon; when close in with them, we made the centre of the reef to be, on 0° 54 S. and by one of Margett's chronometers, No. 209, whose rate had been regular for upwards of two years, 134 20 E. The full extent of the reef and Islands is about fourteen miles North and South; and their breadth East to West five miles.

Captain Williams not passing close enough to perceive the danger of the reef on which they are situated, or what refreshments might be procured from them, I considered

the first as an object of some moment, as the Eastern Passage to China, in all probability, may be more frequented than formerly, by the Bengal shipping, should the cotton trade increase.

The Islands are very low; and ships falling in with them in the night would be close in, before they perceived the land; and if not acquainted with the danger, might attempt a passage between them, in which case they would unavoidably run on the reef; as they are situated upon one entire shoal, so that it is not possible for a boat to pass between the Islands.

The view of the reef on which they are placed, was taken from the mast head, from whence the eye could extend over the whole space of both Islands and reef, therefore I can vouch for its accuracy.

The natives came off in great numbers; and on approaching near the ship, performed extravagant gestures, and held forth a long harangue, which neither our Malays, nor any other person on board understood; after which they made no scruple of coming on board, and freely parted with their ornaments of dress, and cocoa nuts, for pieces of iron hoops and old nails.

Their dress consisted of a treble string of coral, stones, and shells, round the waist; a narrow piece of cloth up between the legs, made out of the fibres of cocoa nut; a bracelet of tortoise-shell, round the right wrist; two square pieces of mother-o'-pearl, suspended round the neck, by hair, one piece hanging down the front of the body, and the other down the back; a collar round the neck, of fish teeth, and black coral. This was the dress of the men; and the only difference we perceived in that of the women, was, a small mat tied round the waist, which reached as low as the knee.

The natives of these Islands are particularly well proportioned and robust; their features are regular and manly; some of them so symmetrical, that I was astonished; having never seen any equal to them in either Asia, Africa, or America: There is not the least resemblance between them and the Malays, or the inhabitants of New Guinea; nor can I form the smallest conjecture, from whence these Islands could have been first inhabited. Their only produce, and chief food, is the cocoa nut, (fish excepted) consequently but little refreshments can be obtained by touching at them; and water, if any is to be procured, I conceive must be brackish, from the low situation, and small extent of the Islands. Anchorage there is none, as you have 50 fathoms close to the edge of the reef. A quantity of mother-o'-pearl might be collected; but I question if sufficient to induce a ship to touch for it.

I am, Sir, &c.

ANDREW BARCLAY.

July 1st, 1806.

CHRISTIAN PAGANICS IN FRANCE.

The Mad Holiday; or the Ass's Festival.

Mr. Millin, a member of the French Institute, has lately published some curious particulars of a religious ceremony practised in France during many centuries; the impiety, grossness, and extravagance of which, far exceed the most absurd mysteries of Paganism. It was called the Ass's Festival; otherwise, mad-men's holiday; or *fête des sous diacones*, (a French pun, meaning either sub-deacons or drunken deacons) the cornutos' holiday, &c. &c. The name given to it, and some of the mummeries practised in it, were different in the different provinces. The following are the details of those used in the cathedral of Sens; they are taken from a manuscript missal of that church, now kept in the town library; it was composed by Pierre Corbeil, Archbishop of Sens, who died June, 1222.*

On this festival, a bishop, or even a pope, of folly, was elected for the occasion. The priests were besmeared with lees of wine, they were masked or disguised in the most extravagant and ridiculous manner. They entered the choir dancing, and singing obscene songs: the deacons and sub-deacons were eating puddings and sausages on the altar before the priest who was celebrating mass; they played cards and dice before his face; they put into the censer, pieces of old shoes, the smoke of which they made him respire; they were afterwards carried through the streets in carts, where they practised various indecencies.

But, the Ass was the principal object and actor of the festival. On the eve of the day appointed to celebrate it, before the beginning of Vespers, the clergy went in procession to the door of the cathedral, where were two choristers singing in a minor key (or rather with squeaking voices),

*Lux hodie, lux lætitiæ! Me iudice tristis
Quisquis erit, removendus erit solemnibus istis.
Sicut hodie, procul invidiæ! procul omnia
mæsta!*

Læta volunt, quicumque colunt asinaria festa.

Light to-day! the light of joy! I banish every sorrow,

Wherever found, be it expell'd, from our solemnities to-morrow.

Away be strife, and grief, and care, from every anxious breast,

And all be joy and glee in those who keep the ass's feast.

* Some learned French antiquarians, Du Cange, DuTilliot, Baluse, &c. formerly noticed this extraordinary festival; but the accounts

After this edifying anthem two canons were deputed to fetch the Ass, and to conduct him to the table, which was the place where the Great Chanier sat, to read the order of the ceremonies, and the names of those who were to take any part in them. The modest animal was clad with precious priestly ornaments, and in this array was solemnly conducted to the middle of the choir, during which procession, the following hymn was sung in a major key.

*Orientis partibus
Adventavit asinus
Pulcher et fortissimus
Sarcinis aptissimus.*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Lentus erat pedibus
Nisi foret baculus
Et eum in clunibus
Pungeret.*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Ecce magnis auribus
Subjugalis filius
Asinus egregius
Asinorum dominus!*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Saltu vincit hinnulos
Damas et capreolos
Super dromedarios
Velox Medianos,*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Aurum de Arabia
Thus et myrrham de Saba
Tulit in Ecclesia
Virtus asinaria.*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Dum trahit vehicula
Multa cum sarcinula
Ilitis mandibula
Dura terit pabula.*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Cum aristis hordeum
Comedit et carduum
Triticum a paleâ
Segregat in areâ,*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

*Amen dicas asine
Jam saris ex gramine
Amen amen itera
Aspernare vetera*

Hez Sire Ane hez!

From the country of the East
Came this strong and handsome beast;
This able Ass beyond compare,
Heavy loads and packs to bear.

Huzza, Seigneur Ass, huzza!

True it is, his pace is slow,
Till he feel the quick'ning blow;
Till he feel the urging goad,
On his buttock well bestowed.

Huzza, Seigneur Ass, huzza!

they gave of it were imperfect, and mostly referred to later periods, when some of its extravagancies had been suppressed.

See that broad majestic ear!
Born he is the yoke to wear:
All his fellows he surpasses!
He's the very lord of asses!

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

In leaping he excels the fawn,
The deer, the colts upon the lawn;
Less swift the dromedaries ran
Boasted of in Midian.

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

Gold from Araby the blest,
Seba myrrh—of myrrh the best—
To the church this Ass did bring:
We his sturdy labours sing.

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

While he draws the loaded wain,
Or many a pack,—he don't complain:
With his jaws, a noble pair,
He doth craunch his homely fare.

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

The bearded barley and its stem,
And thistles, yield his fill of them:
He assists to separate,
When it's thresh'd, the chaff from wheat.

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

Amen! bray, most honoured Ass,
Sated now with grain and grass:
Amen repeat, Amen reply,
And disregard Antiquity.

Huzza! Seigneur Ass, huzza!

After this the office began by an anthem in the same style, sung purposely in the most discordant manner possible; the office itself lasted the whole of the night, and part of the next day; it was a rhapsody of whatever was sung in the course of the year, at the appropriated festivals, forming altogether the strangest and most ridiculous medley that can be conceived. As it was natural to suppose that the choristers and the congregation should feel thirst in so long a performance, wine was distributed in no sparing manner. The signal for that part of the ceremony was, an anthem commencing, *Conductus ad poculum*, &c. (Brought to the glass, &c.)

The first evening, after vespers, the Grand Chanter of Sens headed the jolly band in the streets, preceded by an enormous lantern. A vast theatre was prepared for their reception before the church, where they performed not the most decent interludes: the singing and dancing were concluded by throwing a pail of water on the head of the Grand Chanter.—They then returned to church to begin the morning office; and on that occasion several received on their naked bodies a number of pails of water. At the respective divisions of the service great care was taken to supply the Ass with drink and provender. In the middle of it a signal was given by an anthem, *Conductus ad ludos* (Brought to play &c.), and the

Ass was conducted into the nave of the church, where the people, mixed with the clergy, danced round him, and strove to imitate his braying. When the dancing was over, the Ass was brought back again, into the choir, where the clergy terminated the festival.

The vespers of the second day concluded with an invitation to dinner, in the form of an anthem, like the rest, *Conductus ad prandium* (Brought to dinner), and the festival ended by a repetition of similar theatricals to those which had taken place the day before.

We have purposely omitted several extraordinary hymns, as offering a disgusting compound of impiety and extravagance. We shall only remark, that the word *evange* is invariably substituted for *Amen*; which, with the wine drunk in profusion, the priests besmeared with the lees of wine, and the encomiums on madness, leave no doubt in our mind that this monstrous ceremony was a remnant of the *Bacchanalia*, and not of the *Saturnalia*, as the French antiquarians insist. The ass, as every one knows, was the constant attribute of Silenus, the fosterer of Bacchus. Indeed, Mr. Millin informs us, that the cover of the Missal from which these details are extracted is ornamented with representations of all the operations of vintage, and with other analogous mythologic subjects.

What is the most extraordinary fact of all, and indeed barely within the limits of credibility, is, that this most shameful festival was not suppressed till towards the end of the sixteenth century! Some of its most shocking absurdities had, indeed, been removed, yet the custom was continued.

We have reason to conclude, that many such commemorations were practised down to the very period of the Reformation, and we cannot avoid remarking, that while these heathenish superstitions degraded Christianity by their admixture, they manifested the imbecility of the Romish church, as to the great purposes of the Gospel, the amendment of the heart and manners. Was it possible that the congregation should revere those clergymen in after-time, whom they had seen expose themselves and their sacred calling so grossly? What influence could attend their instructions, their exhortations, their admonitions? If their persons were not respected, of what avail were their discourses? Let it also be remembered, that the imagination of youth was less likely to be affected to good purpose by the solemnities of the choir, when performed in an orderly manner, than to bad purposes by such anti-solemnities performed by the choristers in a manner so disorderly. The service of the Romish church was professedly calculated to impress the external senses, the imagination, and the memory, yet in its very bosom were cherished by its own priests and religious offi-

cers, those opposite practices which were of all possible inventions the most likely to counteract and annul those impressions. In fact, then, whatever may be said in behalf of the Church of Rome as it stood before the days of Luther, that communion is bound to venerate the memory of that energetic reformer, since he not only reclaimed a considerable part of Christendom to the principles of Christianity, but reformed that church from heathenism, in a degree of which the Catholics of the present day have no conception.

Mr. Millin's publication was followed by a second paper, of which we expect a translation.

ORIENTAL LIBRARY, INDIA-HOUSE.

The foundation of the Oriental Library at the India-house may be considered as having been laid by an order of the Court of Directors of May 25, 1798, in which the Court observes, that "it has been of late years a frequent practice among our servants, especially in Bengal, to make collections of Oriental manuscripts, many of which have afterwards been brought into this country. These remaining in private hands, and being likely, in a course of time, to pass into others, in which, probably, no use can be made of them, they are in danger of being neglected, and, at length, in a great measure, lost to Europe as well as to India. We think this a matter of greater regret, because we apprehend, that since the decline of the Mogul Empire the encouragement formerly given to Persian literature has ceased, that hardly any new works of celebrity appear, and that few copies of books of established character are now made; so that there being by the accidents of time, and the exportation of the best manuscripts, a progressive diminution of the original stock, Hindostan may, at length, be much thinned of its literary stores, without greatly enriching Europe. To prevent, in part, this injury to letters, we have thought that the institution of a Public Repository in this country for Oriental writings would be useful, and that a thing professedly of this kind is still a bibliothecal desideratum here. It is not our meaning that the Company should go into any considerable expense in forming a collection of Eastern books, but we think the India-House might, with particular propriety, be the centre of an ample accumulation of that nature, conceiving also that gentlemen might choose to lodge valuable compositions where they could be safely preserved, and become useful to the public, we, therefore, desire it may be made known, that we are willing to allot a suitable apartment for the purpose of an Oriental Repository, in the additional buildings now erecting in Lead-

enhall-street, and that all Eastern manuscripts transmitted to that repository will be carefully preserved and registered there.

"By such a collection the literature of Persian and Mahometan India may be preserved in this country, after, perhaps, it shall, from further changes, and the further declension of taste for it, be partly lost in its original seats.

"Nor would we confine this collection to Persian and Arabic manuscripts. The Sanscrit writings, from the long subjection of the Hindoos to foreign government, from the discouragement their literature, in consequence, experienced, and, from the ravages of time, must have suffered greatly; we should be glad, therefore, that copies of all the valuable books which remain in that language, or in any of the ancient dialects of the Hindoos, might, through the industry of individuals, at length be placed in safety in this island, and form a part of the proposed collection."

On the 5th of June, 1805, the Directors write—

"We have now to inform you, that the apartments for the Oriental Library, being completed according to our intentions, have been placed under the care of Mr. Charles Wilkins, formerly of our civil service in Bengal, and that a considerable number of manuscripts, and printed books upon Oriental subjects, with objects of natural history and curiosity, have already been placed in it, among which are many valuable presents from individuals and public bodies in this country."

Such was the state of this institution when the fortune of war threw into the hands of the India Company the valuable library of Tippoo Sultan, or, as he preferred to be called, *Sahib* (student). This collection was, in part, begun by his father, Hyder Ali, who, soldier though he were, yet had a relish for literature; it was increased by the diligence and care of Tippoo himself, and contained a variety of valuable and interesting works. Those which we have inspected are mostly in the Arabic language; as was but a natural preference in their owner. Several copies of the Koran are magnificently bound, and the leaves (vellum) are ornamented in every vacancy with gilding,—the labour of years! "Thus do Mahometans venerate their copies of what they esteem Sacred Scripture," said one of our Company: to which another answered, "But though our copies of Scripture be plain and simple, they are more abundant, in the proportion of one to ten thousand,—thanks to the art of printing." Tippoo's own copy of the Koran is but small; neither is it externally very superb; it is, however, a beautiful specimen of calligraphy.

Very few other works are in what we should esteem *decent* binding, for a sovereign; and the general appearance of the volumes has rather an air of parsimony than of munificence.

This repository contains many other curious articles, and, no doubt, will, in a few years, fulfil the intention of those well-wishers to literature who so laudably interested themselves in its establishment.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

VARIATIONS OF INSTINCT.

LETTER II.

SIR,

Your kind reception of my first letter induces me to fulfil the conditional promise I made of a second.

I have pointed out instances of degeneration in the brute creation, when reduced to a state of domesticity; I have also adduced some examples of their susceptibility of improvement, both in individuals and in species, when united in societies, and favoured by peace and plenty. It is true that some of the most eminent naturalists have boldly denied to species that capability of improvement which they have allowed to individuals: facts, however, oppose these assertions, which, like many others of a similar nature, tend to degrade animals below their true stations, in order, perhaps, to justify our wanton cruelty towards them.

As a further instance in proof of this, I might have mentioned, in my former letter, that M. Mounier, counsellor of state in France, has lately succeeded in taming a she-wolf, by feeding her to satiety. Food was laid before her every two hours, and she soon became as tractable and as obedient as a dog, in spite of Buffon's assertions of the impossibility of such a change of disposition in wolves.

I proceed now to notice other facts, the evidence of which is equally curious and interesting.

Certain squirrels, for instance, put up with the first hollow tree they meet with, and there fix their dwelling, without attempting any alteration. Others, wishing to be sheltered from the rain, add a covering to this natural habitation. Others, again, to avoid the attacks of snakes and other foes, select, in a tree, a spot where a main branch forms a prong of three divisions; here they establish a solid flooring, and rear with sprigs and sticks a commodious dwelling, to which they add a covering of a conical shape. These are, surely, squirrels of an inventive genius; their improvements are gradually imitated by others, for the number of dwellings on this *improved construction* is known to increase: and thus

we have a whole species in a progressive state of refinement.

Give me leave, also, to remark, that a friendly intercourse with man improves, in a wonderful degree, the intelligence of animals, who, if once admitted into our familiarity, seem to share many of our sentiments, and to adopt our ideas. I shall not allude here to the sagacity and proverbial fidelity of the dog. The horse, treated as a friend by the Arabians, proves himself worthy of the distinction; but, I am well aware that examples taken from among these species would not appear conclusive, owing to the superior *instinct* attributed to these animals, no less in a state of nature than in a state of domesticity.

I knew a cat which saved the life of a French clergyman in Paris. He had received a large sum of money, and was alone at night in his bed-room, writing, with puss by his side. He soon remarked, that, contrary to her usual quiet demeanour, she appeared greatly agitated, and kept scratching his clothes, mewling, and going perpetually from his chair to the bed-side, renewing her importunities every time she returned. Roused, at last, by the novelty and expression of the scene, he looked under the bed, and there found his sexton, who confessed, that knowing of the money the curate had received, he had hid himself for the purpose of murdering him, with a large hammer he had provided.

A friend of mine, who has long been established in the state of Vermont, in America, where he is a magistrate, and who occasionally favours me with the result of his observations, has communicated the following instances of *moral* improvement which the society of man has produced even on animals, who, from their supposed dullness, seem the least susceptible of it.

"I was," says he, "one of the first colonists who began the reclaiming of this district, now well-peopled, and well-cultivated, but which was then covered with marshes and forests, and intersected by numberless rivulets, which the industry of the beavers had converted into large pools, and even lakes extending several miles in length and breadth. Knowing, from my father's experience, the difficulties a new settler had to encounter in providing fodder for his cattle, and defending his flocks and herds from wild beasts, I only took a cow with me; and notwithstanding the valour of three large Newfoundland dogs, such was the multitude of wolves, which, during winter, assailed the cabin I had (very solidly) constructed for her, that I was forced to receive her, for protection, at night, into the dwelling-house. Thus become a more intimate member of the family, the kind usage she received, the particular care we took of

her, the caresses of our children, extended and improved her intelligence in an astonishing degree. To whatever distance from the house she might straggle, she never failed answering when called by her name. She would not leave us in the morning till we had fixed a bell to her neck, but would keep shaking her head till that was done. Whenever she heard the barking of the dogs (which she well knew was the signal of a wolf's approach) she would run roaring towards the house, and rap at the door with her horns. She liked whatever we liked, and fed on whatever we eat. She was particularly fond of *tea*, when sweetened, and regularly expected her share of that beverage, as well as of all our dishes. She would also partake of the dinner of our dogs, and, strange to tell, never experienced a rebuke from those generous animals. Whenever, at her call, they ran to her assistance, she would meet them half way, and lick them, one after the other, to express her gratitude: when near calving she became so timid, that she would not venture out without being accompanied by these trusty guardians.

Soon, however, the smallness of our dwelling and the inconvenience of her dung, determined me to build for her a strong cabin, adjoining the house, but I soon perceived, that she regretted her former lodging; her milk visibly diminished, her health was impaired; she pined in solitude, as if banished far from us. With the assistance of my negroes, I opened a communication, which permitted her to see what was going forward in the house; and that mark of attention soon effected her recovery. She lived with me 19 years, and had seventeen calves in fourteen years and two months: in that time her progeny amounted to sixty-nine. In summer she conducted the whole troop into the woods; hardly a day passed without her stealing away from them, to visit the house in expectation of her share of potatoes, &c. which was always reserved for her. Every Saturday she regularly brought the whole herd to our door, to receive the allowance of salt which we used to give the cattle on that day, weekly. How she came to remark it, to count the intervening days, and by what means she imparted her observations to the others, I am not prepared to say; but she never failed once in her life. I could enumerate many other instances of sagacity and intelligence in domestic animals which would appear equally astonishing and inexplicable; particularly when they are united in great numbers, or are admitted into *familiarity* with man. But, since I have mentioned salt, which we consider in this country as an article indispensable for cattle of every kind, I shall attempt to give you an idea of the effect produced on animals by the

taste of that substance; without pretending to account for it.

One of the principal things a colonist must attend to is, to soften the wild dispositions which his foals, when quite young, have acquired in the woods: it is difficult to form an adequate idea of the fear which pervades them at the first sight of man; wild and restless, they only follow the dam at a great distance, and frequently refuse to obey her neighing. However, after many attempts, they come a little nearer, and then is the time to give salt to the mares. I do not know by what means they express to their foals the delicious sensation they experience; it looks like magic. If a foal pays attention to the first invitation it is a good sign, and will soon come to the salt; but, in the mean time, the man must be perfectly motionless; for the least waving of the hand would put him to flight, and the attempt should be deferred till the next day; but, imperceptibly encouraged by the example and the neighings of his dam, the young animal goes a step forward, and stops; another step follows, after a pause, and again he stops; meanwhile, his legs are bent like springs, ready to fly off. At last, after some minutes of uneasiness and apprehension, he seems anxious to taste the substance as yet unknown to him; he advances tremblingly, and stops again; till his fears being entirely removed by the immobility of the hand which holds the salt, and by the neighing of the dam, he stretches his neck to the utmost; his eyes are distended, and, sparkling, they appear inflamed; he gradually puts forth his tongue, and, at last, reaches the salt. You may, on the instant, see in his countenance all the expression of gratified sensuality. How he relishes this new food! How gently he waves his head! From that moment he loses some of his wildness, and the sight of man ceases to frighten him as it did. He has made the first steps towards civilization."

It is very likely that if we were more attentive to the manners of animals, or could investigate them in their unsophisticated state, we might acquire additional evidence of the progress they have made, and are making, towards a perfection of nature of which they were originally void. Different races are demonstrably possessed of different qualities: and we see in their tempers, also, very supposable variations, from their primary dispositions. Whether this improvement is not in some measure analogous to mental improvement in the human race may deserve the inquiry of the ingenious. The subject must be reserved for another communication.

Your's, &c.
HERMIT.

PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY.

CHAP. IV.—*Minister's Pledge.—Change of Ministers.—Thanks to the Captors of Monte Video.—Account of Ammunition.—Scotch Judicature.—Vote of Supply.—Places in Reversion.—Poor's Bill.—Shipping Interest.—Prerogative.—King's Speech.—Dissolution.*

APRIL 9.—After the recess, Mr. Brand rose for the purpose of making a motion, of which he had given notice on the night of adjournment. It was, in substance, "that it is contrary to the first duties of the confidential servants of the crown to restrain themselves by any pledge, expressed or implied, from offering to the King any advice which circumstances may render necessary for the welfare and security of any part of His Majesty's empire." In the course of his prefatory speech, Mr. Brand asserted, that in the pledge demanded from the late administration there was full evidence of advice having been given, dangerous to the constitution, and inimical to the sacred prerogative of the crown. His Majesty had a full discretion, as to the appointment of his ministers; but he could not restrain those whom he had appointed from giving that advice which circumstances might require. Responsibility was one of the rights of the constitution; but where could that responsibility exist, which had not a correspondent controul? A Privy Counsellor, according to his oath, was bound to advise the King generally for the good of himself and his subjects, without any partiality, affection, or dread of any person whatever. If a Privy Counsellor, after taking such an oath, should sign a pledge to counteract its effect, what had he to answer for, to his King, his Country, and his God?

The Hon. Mr. Lamb seconded the motion; and was followed in the debate by General Crawford, who opposed the motion, considering it impossible to discuss it without keeping the Catholic Question in view. After two or three other members had spoken, Mr. Osborne moved the order of the day. This motion was seconded by Mr. Bastard, from a reluctance to vote upon the question, conceiving it to be entirely of an abstract nature.—Mr. Perceval, in the course of his speech, observed, that it might be assumed, for the sake of argument, that His Majesty had acted under advice; but it was sufficiently known, that His Majesty had dismissed his late Ministers without any secret advisers. Mr. Grattan spoke at considerable length, in favour of the Catholics, and of the late promised measure for their relief. Dr. Duigenan, in opposing the motion, and the claims of the Catholics, observed, that he could not but think, that the intention of a noble Lord [supposed to mean Lord G.] was to subvert the Protestant

government of Ireland. Lord Howick very warmly called him to order; and said, that if the learned Doctor possessed the feelings of a man, he would name the noble Lord alluded to, and arraign him at the bar of that House. Much clamour ensued; but the Speaker was not of opinion that the words complained of amounted to a violation of order, in making a charge against a public minister. Sir S. Romilly made what was conceived to be an indecorous allusion to the late trial of Lord Melville, for which he was called to order by Mr. Jefferies; after which Mr. Whitbread entered into a vindication of the late ministry, from the charge of employing their power or influence against Lord Melville. Mr. B. Bathurst, in opposing the motion, considered, it as calculated to bring the conduct of the Sovereign directly in question. If it were wrong to grant the pledge, it was wrong to ask it. The next question might be, to know who advised it; and, if there were no adviser, it went directly to arraign the crown. Lord Howick observed, that, who the secret advisers of the King were, he would not venture positively to assert; but he knew that, on the Saturday before he sent the dispatch to Windsor, Lord Eldon had a private interview with the Sovereign. Before he had been authorised to announce that a new ministry was forming, the same noble lord, and Lord Hawkesbury, had been closeted with His Majesty; and he therefore held them responsible for the dismissal of the late ministers. Mr. Canning insisted, that the change which had taken place in the government was not from any act of the Sovereign, or from the influence of any secret advisers, but from the suicidal act of the late administration itself. His Majesty's present servants had been called to the service of their country by the express desire of His Majesty; they had not accepted of their office, with any other intention than that of standing firm to the King and Constitution; but he must observe to the House, that there *might* be circumstances under which they might feel the necessity of taking the *sense of the country*. Lord H. Petty defended the conduct of the late ministers; after which, the House having continued in debate till nearly seven o'clock in the morning, the question was loudly called for: on a division, there appeared for Mr. Osborne's amendment, for pressing the order of the day, 258; against it, 226:—majority, in favour of the new ministers, 32.

On the 13th of April, in the House of Lords, the Marquis of Stafford made his proposed motion, relative to the change of ministers, in substance as follows:—"That this House, feeling the necessity of a firm and stable government at this most important crisis of public affairs, is impressed with the deepest regret at the change which has taken

place in His Majesty's councils; and that this regret is greatly increased by the cause to which such change has been ascribed; conceiving it to be contrary to the first duty of ministers to restrain themselves by any pledge, expressed or implied, from submitting to His Majesty such advice, as, in the course of events, may be judged necessary for the honour of the crown or the security of the people."

Lord Aberdeen considered this motion as an attempt to justify the conduct of the late administration; a conduct which, in his opinion, did, indeed, require justification; but he did not think that the efforts now making to accomplish that object would succeed.—Much had been said about secret advice, and secret advisers; but he could take upon himself to say, that, in a matter of such great and important moment, the King was perfectly capable of adopting the conduct which he had so happily pursued, without the aid of any secret advice or advisers whatever. His lordship moved the previous question. The Earl of Hardwicke and Lord Erskine both spoke in favour of the original motion; and the latter observed, that whosoever were the secret advisers of the King, he should live and die in the opinion that there had been such; and that they had availed themselves of the agitation of the Catholic Question, to doom the late ministry to dissolution. He trusted, however, that the Catholics of Ireland would not forget the many instances of beneficence which they had experienced from the kindness of their Sovereign—that they would not believe, what some had attempted to insinuate, that, under no circumstances, would they experience any extension of the royal bounty. Lord Jersey supported, and Lord Harrowby opposed the motion; the Lords Selkirk and Borlindon moved that their Lordships should adjourn. Several other members delivered their sentiments, and the house continued in debate till seven o'clock on the following morning; when, the question being loudly called for, their lordships divided on the motion of adjournment, — the numbers were as follows:—Contents 135, Proxies 36—171; Non-contents 69, Proxies 21—90. Majority for the ministers—81.

APRIL 15.—In the House of Commons, the following motion was made by Mr. Lytton, who delivered a warm eulogium on the conduct of the late ministers:—"That this House, considering a firm and efficient administration as indispensable in the present posture of affairs, has seen, with the greatest regret, the late change in His Majesty's Council."

Mr. Hibbert, in seconding the motion, appealed to the House, whether the late ministers had reposed on that "bed of roses," while in office, which their opponents so angrily asserted that they did; or whether the

thorns did not so abound, that the value and beauty of the roses were annihilated? He appealed to the House, whether, in one wise act, by a judicious disposal of a part of our navy (alluding to the passing of the Dardanelles), they had not done more than in the wanton disposal of millions in foreign subsidies? Mr. Milnes observed, that as to the general conduct of the late ministers, he would insist that he saw nothing in it which called for such eulogium, such panegyric, as they and their friends bestowed on it. If a reform in the condition of some parts of the state had been supported, did not those who had succeeded them join in the measure? But, did the public join them in a recent inquiry?—(Alluding to the trial of Sir Home Popham.)—They certainly did not. In the Slave Trade Abolition Bill they had no right to assert a superior claim to humanity or justice; it became a general cause, was no party matter, and all united in it. Mr. Milnes concluded with moving the order of the day.—Sir John Newport, in the course of the debate which ensued, charged some of the present ministers with criminal connivance at the misapplication of the funds which had been appropriated to the purpose of education, in Ireland. He charged Lord Castlereagh with a knowledge of the application of those funds to private purposes. One of the first objects of the late ministers had been the melioration of the system of tithes; but no improvement in that respect could be expected from the present administration, who had raised a cry that the church was in danger. The development of their former foul deeds and profligate abuses had raised a host of enemies in Ireland, as well as in this country; but the late ministers retired from office with the consciousness of having discharged their duty to the public, for which they enjoyed, at least, the meed of self-approbation, and the good opinion of those who estimated, uninfluenced by party feelings, the real interest of the country. After a very long debate, which lasted till six o'clock on the following morning, a division took place on the amendment:—for the order of the day,—Ayes, 244; Noes, 198; majority for the present ministers, 46.

APRIL 16.—Votes of thanks were this evening passed, *nem. dis.* in each House, to Sir Samuel Auchmuty and to Rear-Admiral Stirling, the military and naval commanders at the capture of Monte Video; and to the officers, soldiers, seamen, and marines, under their respective commands. The Earl of Galloway, in the upper House, though he gave his hearty concurrence to the motions, could not refrain from alluding to the Gazette statement, that, seven days after the opening of the trenches, the army was obliged to get powder from the merchant vessels, and that only two days' powder remained when the

breach was made. He voted cheerfully for the thanks now moved to the troops which had achieved the conquest of Monte Video; but he could not help regretting, that their brothers in arms, who had made a similar and a sister conquest about thirteen months ago, were not associated with them.

APRIL 21.—Earl Moira moved, “that an address be presented to his Majesty, praying, that he would be pleased to order the proper officer to lay before the House an account of the quantity of ammunition embarked by order of the Ordnance-Office, on board of the vessels which sailed on the expedition with Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and a comparison of the same with the quantity usually shipped for expeditions of a similar description.” His lordship observed, that the production of this paper would do away the misapprehension, arising from a passage in the dispatch of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, that too small a provision of ammunition had been made for the expedition under that officer.—The motion was agreed to.

APRIL 17.—A long discussion took place this evening, in the House of Lords, on the Scotch Judicature Bill, in which the rights of the Scotch and Irish Judges, in the respective Parliaments of Scotland and Ireland, before the Union, were investigated. The general sentiment of their Lordships was, that no judges had a right to seats in the House, except such as were called by writ; and the Lord Chancellor, in stating this opinion, gave notice of his intention to bring in a bill to admit the Scotch and Irish Judges into the house, and thus set the question at rest.

On the same evening, Mr. Huskisson, in a committee of supply, moved that the following sums be granted for miscellaneous services:—£2,000,000, to be raised by Exchequer bills, for paying off Exchequer bills to that amount, voted last year; £1,500,000, also to be raised by Exchequer bills, for paying off the like sum, raised by Exchequer bills last year; £30,000, to pay off annuities on the loyalty loan; and £1,300,000 18s. 3d. for captures of the second Swedish convoy, and to make good what was returned by Great Britain after the late treaty between the two countries. Mr. Banks brought in his bill “for preventing the grant of places or offices in reversion, or for joint lives, with benefit of survivorship.” Mr. Whitbread, in moving the order of the day for the House to resolve itself into a committee on the Poors’ Bill, stated his intention to divide it into four bills. The first, to regulate the education of the poor, in which he meant to leave out the provisions relating to vestries, and for badging the poor; the second, for the relaxation of the law of settlement, and giving relief to those who had resided a certain number of years; in which he proposed to retain some of the provisions

relative to vestries, and to press the provision for relieving cottagers of a certain description, at their own request: to give rewards to labourers; to repeal the 9th of George I. which he was convinced tended to drive the poor into workhouses; and to retain the power of giving relief, without the person who received it giving up all his property. This bill would also retain clauses for the management of workhouses, and the building of cottages, and letting them at low rents. The third bill would be, for regulating the parochial fund; and the fourth, for equalising the county rate. These bills respectively passed through a committee; and, on the 24th of the month, the first of them—that for regulating the education of the poor—was again taken into consideration. On this occasion, it appeared to be the prevailing sentiment of the House, that the proposed system, as being in itself a considerable innovation, and tending to introduce a fundamental change in the condition of the most numerous class of society, required a more mature consideration, and that the country parishes should be consulted. Many objections were likewise made to the matter of the bill itself, both as to its general principles and particular provisions.—It was contended, that the measure would not produce the effects expected; that it would neither effectually meliorate the condition of the poor, nor in any way diminish the parish rates; that it was not necessary that every member in a civilized society should be able to read and write; that it was sufficient if certain appointed classes of the people, the establishments of religion and justice, possessed those superior lights, as the body of the people might act by their example; that there was a wide difference between an unlettered individual and a savage, as, if the former were ignorant himself, he lived in the midst of those who might instruct him, while the latter was a savage amongst savages; that it might be easy to teach the poor to read; but it might not be so easy to confine them, when taught, to read to good purpose; that they would possess a narrow knowledge, of all others the most dangerous; and that we should find politics at the plough, and theology in the barn. The bill, however, was passed through the committee, *pro forma*, and ordered to be taken into farther consideration on the 27th.

APRIL 23.—In the House of Peers, Lord Auckland, in addressing the House on the loan bill, which stood for a committee, deprecated the narrow principles introduced by his Majesty’s present ministers, with regard to what they emphatically denominated a *consideration of the Shipping Interest*; and attempted to shew that the late ministers had manifested the sincerest regard for it; but that the present ministers had defeated the object

which they had in view, by the new clauses which they had introduced. The Duke of Montrose observed, that the petition from the shipping interest stated very strong grievances; and he appealed to their lordships, whether their solicitations should be disregarded, or whether any set of ministers could, conscientiously, hear their complaints, and not attend to them. This His Majesty's present ministers had done by the clauses which they had introduced in the bill; and they had done it without affecting, in the smallest degree, the financial welfare of the country. Lord Hawkesbury also contended, that, by the new provisions, the faith of the public was not only preserved, but the shipping interest was maintained and improved, and, above all, the great nursery for seamen was encouraged and protected.

APRIL 27.—This evening, after the royal assent, by commission, had been given to some private bills, the Lord Chancellor, in His Majesty's name, delivered the following speech for the prorogation of Parliament:—

"My Lords and Gentlemen,

"We have it in command from His Majesty to inform you, that His Majesty has thought fit to avail himself of the first moment which would admit of an interruption of the sitting of Parliament, without material inconvenience to the public business, to close the present session; and that His Majesty has therefore been pleased to cause a commission to be issued under the great seal for proroguing the Parliament.

"We are further commanded to state to you, that his Majesty is anxious to recur to the sense of his people, while the events which have recently taken place are yet fresh in their recollection.

"His Majesty feels, that in resorting to this measure, under the present circumstances, he at once demonstrates, in the most unequivocal manner, his own conscientious persuasion of the rectitude of those motives upon which he has acted, and affords to his people the best opportunity of testifying their determination to support him in every exercise of the prerogatives of his crown, which is conformable to the sacred obligations under which they are held, and conducive to the welfare of his kingdom, and to the security of the constitution.

"His Majesty directs us to express his entire conviction, that, after so long a reign, marked by a series of indulgences to his Roman Catholic subjects, they, in common with

every other class of his people, must feel assured of his attachment to the principles of a just and enlightened toleration, and of his anxious desire to protect equally, and promote impartially, the happiness of all descriptions of his subjects.

"Gentlemen of the House of Commons,

"His Majesty has commanded us to thank you, in His Majesty's name, for the supplies which you have furnished for the public service. He has seen, with great satisfaction, that you have been able to find the means of defraying, in the present year, those large but necessary expenses for which you have provided, without imposing upon his people the immediate burden of additional taxes.

"His Majesty has observed, with no less satisfaction, the inquiries which you have instituted into subjects connected with public economy; and he trusts that the early attention of a new Parliament, which he will forthwith direct to be called, will be applied to the prosecution of these important objects.

"My Lords and Gentlemen,

"His Majesty has directed us most earnestly to recommend to you, that you should cultivate, by all means in your power, a spirit of union, harmony, and good-will, amongst all classes and descriptions of his people.

"His Majesty trusts, that the divisions naturally and unavoidably excited by the late unfortunate and uncalled-for agitation of a question so interesting to the feelings and opinions of his people, will speedily pass away; and that the prevailing sense and determination of all his subjects to exert their united efforts in the cause of their country, will enable His Majesty to conduct to an honourable and secure termination, the great contest in which he is engaged."

A commission for proroguing the Parliament was then read; after which, the Lord Chancellor said,

"My Lords and Gentlemen,

"By virtue of His Majesty's commission, under the great seal, to us and other lords directed, and now read, we do, in His Majesty's name, and in obedience to his commands, prorogue this Parliament to Wednesday the 13th day of May next, to be then here holden; and this Parliament is accordingly prorogued to Wednesday the 13th day of May next."

The dissolution of Parliament took place by proclamation, April 29.

COMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF BODY IN DIFFERENT NATIONS.

We have ventured (Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 547, 548) to differ from two French naturalists of celebrity, Peron, and Le Sueur, who from experiments made among the savage tribes of the South Sea Islands with a *Dynamometer*, (an instrument to measure the relative strength of man) have ventured to assert that the strength of man is in proportion to his civilization. These gentlemen have since repeated their experiments on Frenchmen and Englishmen: the result will be the more mortifying to French national vanity if to the certainty of an inferiority in strength be joined even the supposition of an equal deficiency in civilization. This we know will never be admitted: the opinion of the naturalists will be scouted, and the question will be set at rest by a significant shrug of the shoulders, and an exclamation *C'est impossible!* Wishing MM. Peron, and Le Sueur, to get out of this dilemma to their honour, we shall here subjoin their tables of relative strength between an equal number of individuals of different nations, taken on an average.

Strength of Hands and Arms.

Van Diemen's Land . . .	50	5
New Holland	51	8
Timor	58	8
Frenchmen	68	7
Englishmen	71	4

Strength of Back and Loins.

Van Diemen's Land . . .	0	0
New Holland	14	5
Timor	16	2
Frenchmen	22	1
Englishmen	23	5

This table does not disagree with the usual estimate of our officers of the army and navy. Whenever the former can bring the contesting parties to a personal struggle, they manifest no anxiety about the issue. Our seamen also, not seldom conquer their opponents by the superior strength they manifest in maintaining the combat a longer time than the enemy, as well as by greater exertions of bodily strength during the time of action. In prolonged effects of muscular power, it is supposed that the British excel; although in *starts* of speed, some of the Indian nations of America have been thought to manifest more agility and swiftness. We have many instances of speed exerted on occasions of wagers among our countrymen, which appear truly astonishing, and may be compared with any feats performed by uncivilized men. It is, however, difficult to draw general conclusions from extraordinary examples or perhaps personal and uncommon powers.

ADMIRAL DUCKWORTH'S PASSAGE OF THE DARDANELLES.

From the London Gazette, May 0, 1807.

The following is Admiral Duckworth's narration of his naval proceedings: we have omitted a paragraph or two of no importance; together with the Admiral's account of a skirmish between the Turks and British, in which the latter sustained some loss. We venture to predict, that events will not justify the report of 200,000 troops in Constantinople; and that the Turkish navy will little interrupt the British in the Levant. The Admiral had no land forces on board.

Royal George, off Constantinople, Feb. 21, 1807.

A quarter before 9 o'clock a.m. (Feb. 19) the whole of the squadron had passed the Outer Castles, without having returned a shot to their fire (which occasioned but little injury). This forbearance was produced by the desire His Majesty's minister expressed to preserve every appearance of amity, that he might negotiate with the strongest proof of the pacific disposition of our Sovereign towards the Porte: a second battery on the European side, fired also with as little effect. At half-past 9 o'clock, the Canopus, which, on account of Sir Thomas Louis's knowledge of the Channel, joined to the steady gallantry which I had before experienced, had been appointed to lead, entered the narrow passage of Sestos and Abydos, and sustained a very heavy cannonade from both Castles, within point blank shot of each. They opened their fire upon our ships as they continued to pass in succession, although I was happy in observing, that the very spirited return it met with had so considerably diminished its force, that the effect on the sternmost ships could not have been so severe.

Immediately to the N. E. of the Castles, and between them and Point Pesquies, in which a formidable battery had been newly erected, the small squadron [of one 64 gun ship, and five frigates; all Turkish,] which I have alluded to were at anchor. The van division of our squadron gave them their broadsides as they passed, and Sir Sydney Smith with his division closed into the midst; and the effect of the fire was such, that in half an hour the Turks had all cut their cables to run on shore. The object of the Rear Admiral was then to destroy them, which was most rapidly effected; as in less than four hours the whole of them had exploded; except a small corvette, and a gun-boat which it was thought proper to preserve. I inclose to your Lordship a statement of their number, and when I add also an account of the loss His Majesty's ships have sustained, I cannot help expressing my satisfaction that we have suffered so slightly; as had any of their stone shot, some of which exceeded eight hundred weight, made such a breach between wind and water, as they have done in our sides, the ship must have sunk; or had they struck a lower mast in the centre, it must evidently have been cut in two: in the rigging too, no accident occurred that was not perfectly arranged

in the course of the next day. The sprit-sail yard of the Royal George, the gaff of the Canopus, and the main top-sail yard of the Standard, are the only spars that were injured.

The battery on the Point, of more than 30 guns, which, had it been completely finished, was in a position to have annoyed the squadron most severely in passing, was taken possession of by the Royal Marines and boats' crews of the rear division; the Turks having retired at their approach, and the guns were immediately spiked. This service was performed under the direction of Captain Nicholls, of the Standard's Marines.

At a quarter past 3, p.m. the squadron was enabled to make sail; and on the evening of the next day, the 20th, came to anchor, at 10 o'clock, near the Prince's islands, about eight miles from Constantinople, when I dispatched Captain Capel, in the Endymion, to anchor near the town, if the wind, which was light, would permit the ship to stem the current, to convey the Ambassador's dispatches to the Sublime Porte in the morning, by a flag of truce; but he found it impracticable to get within four miles, and consequently anchored at half past 11 o'clock p.m.

*Royal George, without the Dardanelles,
March 6, 1807.*

Had it been then in our power, we should have taken our station off the town immediately, but as that could not be done from the rapidity of the current, I was rather pleased than otherwise, with the position we had been forced to take; for in the conferences between His Majesty's Minister, Mr. Arbuthnot, and the Captain Pacha, of the particulars of which, your Lordship is in possession, it was promised by Mr. Arbuthnot, that even when the squadron had arrived before Constantinople, the door to pacification should remain open, and that he would be willing to negotiate on terms of equality and justice. In consideration of this promise, and as it would convince the Porte of his Majesty's earnest desire to preserve peace, as well as possess her Ministers with a confidence of the sincerity of our professions, it was the opinion of Mr. Arbuthnot, in which I concurred, that it was fortunate we had anchored at a little distance from the capital, as a nearer approach might have given cause for suspicion and alarm, and have cut off the prospect of an amicable adjustment of the differences which had arisen.

At noon, of the 21st, Ysa Bey, a Minister of the Porte, came off; from whose expressions Mr. Arbuthnot thought it impossible not to believe, that in the head of the Government (for in the present instance every circumstance proved, that between him and the armed populace, a great distinction is to be made), there really existed a sincere desire for peace; and the negotiation was carried on, as will appear by the documents transmitted to your Lordship, till the 27th; but from the moment of our anchorage, till we weighed, on the morning of the 1st of March, such was the unfortunate state of the weather, that it was not at any time in our power to have occupied a situation which would have enabled the squadron to commence offensive operations against Constantinople. On Sunday the 22d, alone, for a few hours, the breeze was sufficient to have stemmed the current where we were placed; but such

was the rapidity on shore, where the Endymion was at anchor, that Captain Capel thought it very doubtful whether the squadron could have obtained an anchorage, though it had been held in preparative readiness, by signal, from day-break; but the peculiar unsettled state of the weather, and the minister's desire that I should give a few hours for an answer to his letter, through Ysa Bey, prevented me from trying. Before five o'clock, p.m. it was nearly calm; and in the evening the wind was entirely from the eastward, and continued light airs or calm till the evening of the 25th, when it blew fresh from the N.E. and rendered it impossible to change our position.

The strength of the current from the Bosphorus, with the circuitous eddies of the port, rendered it impracticable to place ships for an attack without a commanding breeze; which, during the ten days I was off the town, it was not my good fortune to meet with.

I now come to the point of explaining to your Lordship the motives which fixed me to decide on repassing the Channel of the Dardanelles, and relinquishing every idea of attacking the capital; and I feel confident that it will require no argument to convince your Lordship of the utter impracticability of our force having made any impression, as at this time the whole line of the coast presented a chain of batteries; twelve Turkish line of battle ships, two of them three-deckers, with nine frigates, were with their sails bent, and apparently in readiness, filled with troops; add to this, near two hundred thousand were said to be in Constantinople, to march against the Russians; besides, there was an innumerable quantity of small craft, with boats; and fire-vessels had been prepared to act against us. With the batteries alone we might have coped, or with the ships, could we have got them out of their strong hold; but your Lordship will be aware, that after combating the opposition which the resources of an empire had been many weeks employed in preparing, we should have been in no state to have defended ourselves against them as described, and then repass the Dardanelles. I know it was my duty, in obedience to your Lordship's orders, to attempt every thing (governed by the opinion of the ambassador) that appeared within the compass of possibility; but when the unavoidable sacrifice of the squadron committed to my charge, (which must have arisen had I waited for a wind to have enabled me to cannonade the town, unattended by the remotest chance of obtaining any advantage for His Majesty's service) must have been the consequence of pursuing that object, it at once became my positive duty, however wounded in pride and ambition, to relinquish it; and if I had not been already satisfied on the subject, the increased opposition in the Dardanelles would have convinced me I had done right, when I resolved on the measure as indispensably necessary. I therefore weighed with the squadron on the morning of the 1st, and as it had been reported that the Turkish fleet designed to make an effort against us, to give them an opportunity, if such was really their intention, I continued to stand on and off during the day, but they shewed no disposition to move.

I therefore, as every hour was of importance, bore up at dusk with the squadron; we arrived off Point Pesques towards the evening of the 2d

instant, but the day-light would not admit of our attempting to pass the Castles, and the squadron came to anchor for the night: we weighed in the morning, and, when I add that every ship was in safety outside of the passage, about noon, it is not without the most lively sense of the good fortune that has attended us.

The Turks had been occupied unceasingly in adding to the number of their forts: some had been already completed, and others were in a forward state. The fire of the two inner Castles had, on our going up, been severe; but, I am sorry to say, the effects they had on our ships returning has proved them to be doubly formidable: in short, had they been allowed another week to complete their defences throughout the Channel, it would have been a very doubtful point, whether a return lay open to us at all. The manner in which they employed the interval of our absence has proved their assiduity. I transmit to your Lordship an account of the damages sustained by the respective ships; as also their loss in killed and wounded, which your Lordship will perceive is far from trifling. The main-mast of the Windsor Castle being more than three quarters cut through by a granite shot of eight hundred weight, we have found great difficulty in saving it. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. T. DUCKWORTH.

Abstract of the killed and wounded on board his Majesty's Ships under the Orders of Vice-Admiral Sir John Thomas Duckworth, K.B. in forcing the Passage of the Dardanelles, on the 19th of February: at the Attack of Prota, the 27th; and on returning through the Dardanelles, on the 3d of March, 1807.

Total—1 officer, 33 seamen killed; 10 officers, 13 petty officers, 169 seamen, wounded; 4 seamen missing from the Standard—1 officer, 7 privates of marines, killed; 3 officers, 2 non-commissioned officers, 33 privates of marines, wounded.

Grand Total—42 killed, 235 wounded, and 4 missing.

It gives us great pleasure to think, that the Map of the water approaches to Constantinople, which we inserted in our last Number, p. 315, will enable our readers to understand with advantage Admiral Duckworth's account of his passing the strait of the Dardanelles. What the Admiral describes as "the outer castles" are the first pair of forts, marked in our map. (*Setilbar Kalessi*, and *Koun Kale*.) The "narrow passage of Sestos and Abydos" is marked on the map by the promontory, and seems to close the entrance to the sea of Marmora. The fire from these castles was "severe." Our account noticed particularly the power of the current, which appears to have been the gallant Admiral's most effectual opponent. The history, also, of one of the great-cannons, for throw-

ing immense stones, we gave from Baron de Tott, who says the ball weighed 1100 weight: the Admiral says, "more than 800." It appears that some of these balls struck the ships' sides in going up; and (what the Admiral most dreaded) struck a lower mast in coming down. However, the mast was not wholly destroyed, though great difficulty was experienced in saving it. If we may be allowed to judge of this exploit, from the nature of the obstacles overcome, it adds another to the most splendid performances of the British navy; and will, in its consequences, draw off a great proportion of the Turkish army from acting offensively against the Russians, while the Turkish navy, manned with *Janissaries*, presents no very dreadful enemy to British sailors. The Turkish navy is usually manned with Greeks, &c. called *Levantis*.

If the capture of Alexandria, as announced in the following Gazette account, be part of a plan for establishing the British power in the East, and thereby checking the progress of Gallic usurpation, or rendering it wholly unavailable to the purposes of all-grasping ambition, we rejoice in the event: but, we hope other positions which this region offers, of a description still more favourable and important to warlike operations, have not been overlooked by our statesmen. There are two islands, Crete and Cyprus, the latter especially, the possession of which would ensure immense advantages while our fleet is in these seas. Cyprus was, in fact, a kind of head-quarters to our troops which were with the Grand Vizir's army at Jaffa, and they found at Larnica many refreshments and benefits also, as to their health, &c. which they could not obtain elsewhere. The island produces necessaries in abundance; it might be made a *dépôt* for stores, and for trade also; it affords very strong positions for defence, and, with Alexandria, would shelter vessels from almost every wind. If Alexandria alone be trusted to, though an excellent harbour, experience will prove the importance implied in this remark before a complete twelvemonth is expired. The necessity of securing a station from which our ships may come out, in whatever point be the wind, as well as to which they may run for shelter, must be apparent to every well informed mind.

CAPTURE OF ALEXANDRIA.

From the London Gazette of May 9, 1807.

Extracts from a letter of Major-General Fraser, to Viscount Castlereagh, Secretary of State, dated Alexandria, March 25, 1807.

SIR—It is with much satisfaction I have the honour to inform you, that, in the afternoon of the 9th current, the town and fortresses of Alexandria, with two Turkish frigates and a corvette, surrendered to his Majesty's arms by capitulation; and that they were taken possession of on the memorable morning of the 21st, by the troops under my command.

You are already apprized of my having been detached on this service, with a body of troops from Messina, by his Excellency General Fox, under convoy of his Majesty's ships *Tigre* and *Apollo*; and the *Wizard* sloop was sent forward by Captain Hallowell, to get intelligence from Major Misset, whom I had been, by my instructions, directed to consult as to the best plan of operations for effecting the purposes of the expedition.

I have now to acquaint you, that in the night of the 7th inst. (the day after we sailed,) the *Apollo* frigate, with nineteen transports out of thirty-three, which conveyed the troops, parted company, and the other fourteen, with the *Tigre*, came to an anchor to the westward of Alexandria, on the 16th.

On our getting near the land we saw the *Wizard*, and Captain Palmer immediately brought me the intelligence he had received from Major Misset, together with a letter from him, stating that he had not come off himself, thinking his presence in Alexandria absolutely necessary to counteract the intrigues of the French Consul, who was endeavouring to prevail upon the Governor to admit a body of Albanians, from Rosetta, to assist in the defence of the place.

He earnestly recommended me to land the troops immediately, as the inhabitants were well affected towards us, and that he had sanguine hopes we should be able to get possession of it without firing a shot.

Accordingly I landed that evening (the 17th) as many troops as our small number of boats could convey, a few miles to the eastward of *Maraout*, without opposition, though I could only take up a position for the night; as before the next landing could be effected, such a surf had arisen on the beach, as totally to prevent the second division from approaching the shore.

The next morning, however, with infinite difficulty and risk, they were landed; but finding my situation now, from the increased height of the surf and appearance of the weather, to be very precarious, both with respect to getting provisions or stores on shore, or having any communications with the transports, I determined at all hazards to force my way to the western side, where I could receive supplies from *Aboukir Bay*, at the same time resolving to attempt (in passing) to get into the town, even with the small force I had, and push my way, if possible, into the forts that commanded it, a matter I had reason to believe from Major Misset and others, would not be very difficult to accomplish.

I therefore moved forward about eight o'clock

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in the evening of the 18th, and in our way forced a palisaded intrenchment, with a deep ditch in front of it, (that had been thrown up by the Turks, as a defence against the Mamelukes and Arabs on the western side) stretching from *Fort des Bains* to *Lake Mareotis*, strengthened by three batteries, mounting eight guns, exclusive of *Fort des Bains* on its right flank, mounting thirteen guns.

This we effected with very little loss, though under a heavy fire of cannon and musketry, and proceeded within a few yards of *Pompey's Gate*, where we found the garrison prepared to receive us, the gate barricaded, and the walls lined with troops and armed inhabitants: this, added to the smallness of my force, (not exceeding one thousand men of all descriptions,) led me to think the risk too great, and I determined to proceed to the westward, as I had originally intended, where I arrived in the morning of the 19th, and took up my position on the ground the British troops occupied in the action of the 21st, immediately sending detachments to take possession of *Aboukir Castle*, and the Cut between the *Lakes Maadîr* and *Mareotis*, by which communication the reinforcement of Albanians was expected in Alexandria; in both these attempts we succeeded.

The next day, the 20th, I sent in (by a friendly Arab that had stolen out of town, and joined us) a Manifesto addressed to the inhabitants, warning them of the danger of implicating friends and foes in the event of taking the place by assault, and urging them to force the governor to capitulate. This had the desired effect, a flag of truce was sent out, and a Capitulation was agreed to and signed.

(Signed) A. M. FRASER, Maj. Gen.

P. S. The *Apollo*, with the nineteen missing transports, came to anchor in *Aboukir Bay*, on the morning of the 20th, and Sir J. Duckworth's squadron arrived here on the 22d.

[The capitulation stipulates for the preservation of private property, respect to religion, and domestic manners. The troops to be sent prisoners of war to a Turkish port. Government vessels to be given up; private vessels to be respected; and those who choose, to be at liberty to depart. A general amnesty.]

Extract of letter from Capt. Hallowell to Lord Collingwood, dated Alexandria, March 24, 1807.

"In the Old or Western Port we have taken two Turkish frigates and a corvette, all mounting brass guns; one carrying 28 eighteen-pounders on her main deck, 6 eighteen-pound carronades, 4 long nine-pounders on her quarter-deck, and 2 nine-pounders on the fore-castle; the other 26 twelve-pounders on the main deck, and 8 six-pounders on the quarter deck. The corvette 14 six-pounders, and 2 eighteen pounders, long guns,

(Signed) "BEN. HALLOWELL."

It may be proper to inform our readers that Alexandria is situated on a neck of land, which the cut to admit the sea, made by the British in the former attack of this city, has reduced to very narrow dimensions. It appears that General Fraser marched from the west side of the town along the edge of the inundation, south of the town, to the eastern point of this isthmus; a course not before taken by any part of the army under Lord Hutchinson.

NARRATION OF THE SEAPOY MUTINY AT
VELLORE, JULY, 1806.

It might perhaps have been expected from us, that we should have given particulars of the unhappy affair at Vellore, in some of our former Numbers: but the difficulty of procuring correct intelligence on a subject, concerning which silence was policy, did not permit us to gratify our own inclination and the wishes of our friends. Even now, we shall only state in general terms, that an attempt to assimilate the appearance of the Seapoys to that of European troops, is understood to have been meditated by some of our officers in India. The report of this intention, and the issue of orders to that effect, which, if established, would have removed the distinguishing marks of tribes and castes among the native soldiery, irritated the Seapoys of the army: but we hope, that no other marks of resistance were experienced than from those which garrisoned Vellore, a fort a few miles distant from Arcot. These took advantage of the dead of night, and the security of the English troops, then most of them sleeping in the barracks, to surround the barracks and to pour in a most destructive fire on their unsuspecting (European) comrades. The slaughter was general, and dreadful. A serjeant and sixteen men secured themselves at the principal gate of the fort. A regiment of horse, stationed at Arcot, on receiving intelligence of the mutiny, hastened to the relief of their countrymen: they succeeded in bursting open the gates and put the Seapoys to the sword. We hope that those of them, who are described in the following letter as exercising humanity, met with humanity also: but this we cannot affirm, particularly. The number of Europeans lost, was somewhat more than 200: that of Seapoys amounted to 800. The most particular account we have been able to obtain appears in the following interesting and pathetic letter. (The order which gave offence is withdrawn.)

On Wednesday evening, July, 9th. 1806, Col.— and I retired to rest at ten o'clock. About the hour of two, on Thursday morning, we were both awakened at the same instant with a loud firing. We both got out of bed, and Col.— went to the window of his writing-room, which he opened, and called aloud and repeatedly to know the cause of the disturbance, to which he received no reply, but by a rapid continuation of the firing by numberless Seapoys assembled at the main guard.

Col.— then went down stairs, and about five minutes after returned to his writing-room, and requested me to bring him a light instantly; I did so, and placed it on the table. He then sat down to write, and I shut the open window, from which he had spoken to the Seapoys, fearing some shot might be directed at him, as he sat; for they were then firing in all directions from the main guard. I looked at my husband, and saw him pale as ashes. I said, "Good God! what is the matter my dear—?" to which he replied, "Go into your room Amelia." Seeing his mind so agitated, I did not think it right to repeat my question at that moment, and therefore went in. I heard him, two minutes after, leave the writing-room, and go out of the house. Between three and four o'clock, I believe the firing ceased at the main guard, and the drums beat, which I afterwards found was owing to my husband's exertions to quiet the Seapoys. I heard no more firing for some time. It then began again at the European barracks. After my husband left the house, I hear he returned again, though I imagine, but for a moment; I certainly heard the door of his writing-room tried, very soon after the firing at the main guard had ceased; but having, after he quitted me, bolted the door, if it were him, he could not enter. When I heard the door attempted, I called out, "Is it you—?" to which I received no answer; but supposing it to be him, he must have quitted the house again immediately. I bolted all the doors in my room and brought my children into it. I fell on my knees and fervently prayed that the Colonel's endeavours, to restore peace to the garrison, might be crowned with success, and his life spared through the mercy of God! I dressed, and twice cautiously opened the hall door, and felt my way to the lower end of it to look where they were firing most. I perceived it was chiefly directed at the European barracks. The last time I ventured from my room, between the hours of four and five, as I staid at the lower end of the hall, which was quite open to the Viranda, a figure approached me: it was so dark I could only see the red jacket by the light of the firing at the barracks. I was dreadfully frightened, expecting to be murdered, and having left the children in my bed-room, dreaded their last hour was come also. I had however courage to ask *who was there?* The answer I received was, "Madam, I am an officer." I then said, "But who are you?" to which the gentleman replied, "I am an officer of the main guard." I inquired what was the matter? He said that it was a mutiny, that every European had already been murdered on guard but himself, and that we should all be murdered. I made no reply, but walked away to the room where my babes and female servants were. The officer went out of the

opposite door of the hall where we had spoken together, and *never* got down stairs *alive*, for he was butchered most cruelly in Colonel —'s dressing room. I have since heard his name, Lieut. O'Reilly, of the 1st. When I had this conversation with the above-mentioned officer, I began to think it unsafe to quit my room again. As soon as day-light appeared, I went into Col.—'s writing-room and looked through the venetian on the parade. I saw some soldiers of the 69th lying dead. Four Seapoys were, at that moment, on the watch at Col. Marriot's door, and several issuing from the gates of the palace. The latter were *not* firing, indeed I *think* they were unarmed, and making a great noise. They were at this time firing on the fort:—at least I heard firing on the ramparts, and in many different places, though at the main guard and barracks all seemed quiet. They were then employed in ransacking the houses, intent upon murder and plunder. I, at this moment, gave all up for lost; I opened my dressing-table drawer, and took out my husband's miniature, which I tied on and hid under my habit-shirt, determining to lose *that* but *in death*. I had secured *his* watch some time before to ascertain the hour. I had *hardly* hid this much-valued resemblance of my husband before I heard a loud noise in the hall adjoining my bed-room. I moved softly to the door, and looking through the key-hole, discovered two Seapoys knocking a chest of drawers to pieces. I was struck with horror, knowing their next visit would be to my apartment. My children and their female servants were, at this time, lying on the mat just before a door which opened into the back Viranda, and which, at the commencement of the mutiny, seemed the safest place. As shots were fired at the windows, we were obliged to move as far as possible from *them*. I whispered my Azah, that the Seapoys were in the hall, and told her to move from the door. She took the children under my bed, and begged me to go there also. I had no time to reply, for the door we had just left, was at that instant burst open. I got under the bed, and was no sooner there, than several shots were fired into the room, but, although the door was open, nobody entered. I took up a ball which fell close to me under the bed; the children were screaming with terror at the fire, and I expected our last hour was come. But willing to make *one* effort to save my babes, I got from my hiding-place and flew into a small adjoining-room off the back stair-case. I opened the window, from whence I only saw two horse-keepers. I returned instantly to my bed-room, and desiring my Azah to take my little babe in her arms, I took Charles — in my own, and opening the door of the back staircase, ran down as quick as I could.

When we came to the bottom, we found several Seapoys on guard at the back of the house. I shewed them my babes, and told my Azah to inform them, that they might take all I had, if they would spare our lives. *One* of them desired us to sit down in the stable, with the horses; another looked very *sarfy*, but did not prevent our going there. Whilst we staid in the stable, I told my Azah, I had my husband's watch, and requested she would hide it for me. She dug up some earth with her fingers, and threw in the watch, and put two or three chuties upon it. We had not been seated five minutes before we were ordered away by a *third* Seapoy; he told us to go into the fowl-house, which had a bamboo front to it, and in consequence we were quite exposed to view, till the *same* man brought us an old mat which we made use of by placing it before the door to hide ourselves, and afterwards the *same* Seapoy brought my little boy half a loaf of bread to satisfy his hunger. Here, I suppose, we sat about three hours. I, in the greatest agony of mind, endeavouring to quiet my dear Charles, whom I found it very difficult to pacify, he was so alarmed by the constant firing, and cried sadly to go out several times. I saw the Seapoys from my concealment, taking out immense loads of our goods on their backs, tied up in table-cloths and sheets. They all went by way of the ramparts, which made me fear that they had still possession of the works; I know not how I was supported! Through the mercy of God I fainted not! I kept my senses through all the horrors of the night and morning. What I most dreaded to hear, was of my husband's murder, and I really believe I should have braved death and searched for him on the parade, had not the situation of my babes withheld me from the rash attempt: my dread of having them murdered in my absence, or leaving them wretched orphans, made me remain in this place of concealment. I hoped for the arrival of the 19th dragoons from Arcot. The few lines, Col.— wrote in his room, I thought most probably was intended to be sent express to Col. Gillespie (who was *that* morning coming to spend a few days with us,) but whether Col.— had the means of sending off his dispatch or not, I was quite ignorant. Still however, I thought the news must meet Col. Gillespie on the road by some means or other, and hearing a tremendous firing at the gates, strengthened my hopes that the regiment was arrived. Our house appeared, at this time, quite deserted by the Seapoys, but suddenly several of them rushed into the compound, and called out, (as my Azah informed me) to find and murder *me*. She requested me to go into the farthest corner of the fowl-house, which I did, taking Charles with me, and covering him with my gown. I had much difficulty to keep him quiet; he

screamed so every instant, that I expected we should all be murdered. But the firing at the gates became now so strong, they were obliged to fly to them, and once more vacated the house, by which means we escaped death. I was so thirsty, as several times to drink dirty water out of a dirty *chatty*, and I gave the same to my dear Charles also. At last I heard distinctly the horses of the 19th on the drawbridge, and *Huzza* repeated aloud! Then I hoped every thing, and presently after heard them enter the Fort. An officer rode in and called me by name, but I could not answer, or move. Again I heard my name repeated, and saw an officer in a red coat, who I thought, looked like my husband; I sprang forward to meet him, but it was Mr. M'Lean. I called for my husband, he told me that he was alive. Col. Gillespie and Mrs. M'Lean then joined us, and both gave me the same assurance. They took me up stairs and placed me on a chair, giving me wine and water to drink. When the agitation of my mind was a little calmed, they told me Col. — was wounded, though not dangerously, and that he must be kept quiet. About an hour after, I was told by the surgeon of the 19th. that my husband was in danger, but that worse wounds had been cured; they were *flesh* wounds, and the balls had not lodged. *Hope still made me think* he would recover. I would not even ask to see him, thinking the sight of me would agitate him too much. Alas! I found too late there was no hope of him from the first, for he breathed his last about four o'clock the same evening. Thank God! he died easily. His death was happy, I am fully satisfied, for he lived religiously, and met his death in the faithful discharge of his duty.

July, 1806.

BILL FOR ADMITTING CATHOLICS, &c.
INTO THE ARMY AND NAVY.

WE have thought it our duty to insert in the Panorama a faithful copy of the bill lately proposed to Parliament, for admission into the higher offices of our army and navy, of a part of our population which had not heretofore been admitted. The events to which this intended regulation has given birth, have distinguished it by an importance altogether extraordinary. It is of consequence, at the present time, that our readers should have an opportunity of considering the principles and provisions of this bill, not in a cursory manner only, but at their leisure, and after their attentive perusal. Nor have we less in view the gratification of posterity, which will look back, no doubt, with great interest, to the

first cause of those political changes in our national administration which have recently occurred among us. Our readers may perhaps remark that we have paid but little attention to the numerous publications which this memorable measure has produced; and which have clamoured for attention from the public. Our reason is, not that we are unacquainted with them, but, that very few of them appear to have treated the question with due accuracy and intimate knowledge. They will be forgotten among the other temporary pamphlets of the day, and like the election squibs, and catches, which, when they have answered the purposes of their party, are no longer thought of, however urgent at the instant.—We cannot, however, avoid hinting at papers which have come under our cognizance, drawn up, and circulated, but not published, by the principal of the Catholic noblemen and gentlemen, who appear to have conducted themselves with truly laudable propriety on this occasion: an occasion of which, so far as our information extends, they were neither the first cause nor the over-weening promoters.

Bill for enabling His Majesty to avail Himself of the Services of all His Liege Subjects, in His Naval and Military Forces, in the Manner therein mentioned.

The preamble sets forth that it is expedient that His Majesty should be enabled to avail himself of the services of all his liege subjects, in his naval and military forces, for the maintenance of the rights of his crown, and of the interests, honour, and independence of the British empire.

Enabling His Majesty to confer commissions in the sea & land forces upon any of His subjects, without exception, on their taking and subscribing a declaration and oath.

Be it therefore enacted by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that it shall and may be lawful for His Majesty to grant or confer, or by his royal sign manual to empower the proper officer or officers to grant or confer any military commission, warrant, or appointment whatever, either in His Majesty's sea or naval forces, or in any of His Majesty's land or military forces whatsoever, to or upon any of His Majesty's liege subjects, without exception; and that every such commission, warrant, or appointment, so granted or con-

ferred, shall and may be lawfully exercised by such His Majesty's subjects, in all places within or without His Majesty's dominions, any law, statute, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding; provided that every such person shall, within——months after his accepting the said commission, warrant, or appointment, take, make, and subscribe the declaration and oath hereinafter mentioned, which declaration and oath shall be ingrossed on the back or at the foot of the commission or appointment so granted or conferred, and shall be there attested by the signature of the magistrate or officer in whose presence the same shall have been subscribed, and by whom the said oath shall have been administered.

Directing by whom and in what manner the oath and declaration shall be administered.

And be it further enacted, that such oath and declaration may be administered and attested by any court of record or judge of such court, or by any justice of peace or other magistrate having power to administer oaths, in any part of His Majesty's dominions; and that if the party taking and subscribing the same, shall at the time of his so taking and subscribing the same not be within His Majesty's dominions, the same may then be administered and attested by any general officer or commanding officer of His Majesty's land forces, or by any admiral or commanding officer of His Majesty's naval forces: provided always, that in this last case the person holding such commission, warrant, or appointment shall, within——months after his return to any part of His Majesty's dominions, again take, make, and subscribe the same oath and declaration in presence of some court of record or magistrate as aforesaid.

Exempting persons who have taken and subscribed the oath and declaration, from certain penalties.

And be it further enacted, that no person having so taken, made, and subscribed such oath and declaration respectively as aforesaid, shall be liable to any pains, penalties, or disabilities whatsoever, for having exercised or acted in or under any such commission, warrant, or appointment, any law, statute, or usage, to the contrary notwithstanding, and although such person shall not have complied with any of the directions of any former statute respecting the qualifications of persons holding or exercising offices within this realm.

Form of oath and declaration.

And be it further enacted, that the said oath and declaration, to be so taken, made, and subscribed, shall be in the words following; videlicet, "I A. B. being by this commission appointed to be [here set forth the appointment] do hereby solemnly promise and swear, in the presence of Almighty God,

that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His Majesty King George the third, and that I will do my utmost to maintain and defend him against all treasons and traitorous conspiracies, and against all attempts whatever that shall be made against his person, crown, or dignity; and that I will, to the utmost of my power, resist all such treasons, conspiracies, or attempts, and will also disclose and make known the same as soon as they shall come to my knowledge; and I do also promise and swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will, to the utmost of my power, maintain and support the succession to the crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, as the same now stands limited by law; and that I will also, to the utmost of my power, maintain and support the established Constitution and Government of the said United Kingdom against all attempts whatever that shall be made against the same."

Allowing persons employed in the sea & land service, the free exercise of their religious opinions.

And whereas it is expedient that His Majesty's subjects, however employed in any of His Majesty's sea or naval forces, or any of His Majesty's land or military forces whatsoever, should be allowed the free exercise of such religious opinions as they may respectively profess; be it enacted, that no person employed in His Majesty's sea or naval forces, or land or military forces, and having previously signified in writing, signed by himself, to his commanding officer, his dissent from the doctrine or worship of the church of England as by law established, shall, under any pretence, or by any means, be prevented from attending, or be subject or liable to any pains, penalties, or disabilities for attending, such divine worship or religious service as may be consistent with and according to his religious persuasion, or opinions at proper and seasonable times, and such as shall be consistent with the due and full discharge of his naval or military duties; nor shall any such person be compelled or compellable to attend the worship or service of the said established church; and that any commissioned officer acting in violation of or contrary to this provision, shall, upon conviction thereof before a General Court Martial, be liable to be suspended or dismissed from His Majesty's service, or to such other punishment, not extending to life or limb, as the said Court shall award; and that any warrant or non-commissioned officer so offending, shall be liable to such punishment, not extending to life or limb, as shall be awarded by a general or regimental court martial.

The final clause directs the continuance of the act.

DURATION OF PARLIAMENTS FROM HENRY VIII. TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Met	Dissolved	Existed.
Y. M. D.	Y. M. D.	Y. M. D.
<i>Reign of Henry VIII.</i>		
21 Jan. 1509	23 Feb. 1509	0 1 2
4 Feb. 1511	4 March 1513	2 1 0
5 Feb. 1514	22 Dec. 1515	1 10 17
15 April 1523	13 Aug. 1523	0 3 29
3 Nov. 1530	4 April 1536	5 5 1
8 June 1536	18 July 1536	0 1 10
28 April 1539	24 July 1540	1 2 26
16 Jan. 1541	29 March 1544	3 2 13
23 Nov. 1545	31 Jan. 1547	1 2 8
<i>Edward VI.</i>		
4 Nov. 1547	15 April 1552	4 5 11
1 March 1553	31 March 1553	0 1 0
<i>Mary.</i>		
5 Oct. 1553	6 Dec. 1553	0 2 1
2 April 1554	5 May 1554	0 1 3
12 Nov. 1554	16 Jan. 1555	0 2 4
21 Oct. 1555	9 Dec. 1555	0 1 18
20 Jan. 1557	17 Nov. 1557	0 9 28
<i>Elizabeth.</i>		
23 Jan. 1558	8 May 1558	0 3 16
11 Jan. 1562	2 Jan. 1567	4 11 22
2 April 1571	29 May 1571	0 1 27
8 May 1572	18 March 1580	7 10 10
23 Nov. 1583	14 Sept. 1586	0 9 21
29 Oct. 1586	23 March 1587	0 4 23
4 Feb. 1588	29 March 1588	0 1 25
19 Nov. 1592	10 April 1593	0 4 22
24 Oct. 1597	9 Feb. 1598	2 3 16
7 Oct. 1601	29 Dec. 1601	0 2 22
<i>James I.</i>		
19 March 1603	9 Feb. 1611	7 10 21
5 April 1614	7 June 1614	0 2 2
30 Jan. 1620	8 Feb. 1621	1 0 9
19 Feb. 1623	24 March 1625	2 1 5
<i>Charles I.</i>		
17 May 1625	12 Aug. 1625	0 2 26
6 Feb. 1626	15 June 1626	0 4 9
17 March 1627	10 March 1628	0 11 23
13 April 1640	3 May 1640	0 0 22
3 Nov. 1640	20 April 1653	12 5 17
<i>Charles II.</i>		
25 April 1660	29 Dec. 1660	0 8 4
8 May 1661	24 Jan. 1678	16 8 16
6 March 1679	12 July 1679	0 4 6
17 Oct. 1679	18 Jan. 1681	1 3 1
21 March 1681	28 March 1681	0 0 7
<i>James II.</i>		
12 March 1685	28 July 1687	2 4 16
22 Jan. 1688	26 Feb. 1689	1 1 4
<i>William III.</i>		
20 March 1689	11 Oct. 1695	6 6 22
27 Nov. 1695	7 July 1698	2 7 10
24 Aug. 1698	19 Dec. 1700	2 3 26
26 Feb. 1700	11 Nov. 1701	1 8 5
30 Dec. 1701	7 July 1702	0 6 2
<i>Anne.</i>		
20 Aug. 1702	5 April 1705	2 7 16
14 June 1705	15 April 1708	2 10 1
8 July 1708	21 Sept. 1710	2 2 13
25 Nov. 1710	8 Aug. 1713	2 8 14
Nov. 1713	15 Jan. 1715	1 2 3

Met

Dissolved

Existed.

George I.

17 March 1715 10 March 1721 5 11 21

10 May 1722 5 Aug. 1727 5 2 26

George II.

28 Nov. 1727 18 April 1734 6 4 21

13 June 1734 28 April 1741 6 10 15

5 June 1741 18 June 1747 5 11 24

13 Aug. 1747 8 April 1754 6 7 26

31 May 1754 20 March 1761 6 9 20

George III.

— May 1761 12 March 1768 6 9 21

10 May 1768 30 Sept. 1774 6 4 20

29 Nov. 1774 1 Sept. 1780 5 9 3

31 Oct. 1780 25 March 1784 3 4 25

18 May 1784 10 June 1790 6 0 23

25 Nov. 1790 19 May 1796 5 5 24

27 Sept. 1796 29 June 1802 6 9 3

31 Aug. 1802 Oct. 1806 0 4 10

19 Dec. 1806 29 April 1807 — to meet

22 June 1807

From an attentive consideration of the above list, which is drawn up with as much accuracy as possible from the rolls and journals of parliament, the following facts may be deduced:—1. That since 1509, (when it is generally supposed that the duration of parliaments was extended beyond one year) *four* parliaments have existed beyond seven years, and *eight* have existed six years.—2. That only *five* parliaments have lasted above five years; *two* parliaments above four, and two above three years.—3. *Nine* have existed above two years, and *thirty-four* for a shorter period.—4. One parliament with another, the duration of each since Henry VII. is about two years and nine months, including the long parliament of Charles I., and the still longer one, which his son retained in existence for the enormous period of seventeen years.

Summary of the whole House of Commons.

40 Counties in England send 80 knights.

25 Cities [Ely none] London 4 50 citizens.

167 Boroughs 2 each . . . 334 burgesses.

5 Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdly, Higham Ferrers, Monmouth) 1 each } 5 burgesses.

2 Universities . . . 4 burgesses.

8 Cinque-ports, Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their 3 branches, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford. } 16 barons.

12 Counties in Wales . . . 12 knights.

12 Boroughs ditto . . . 12 burgesses.

Shires of Scotland . . . 30 knights.

Boroughs of ditto . . . 15 burgesses.

Ireland . . . 64 knights.

Boroughs of ditto . . . 36 burgesses.

Total . . . 658

ANNUAL EXHIBITIONS.

ROYAL ACADEMY, SOMERSET HOUSE.

The month of May is, by custom and usage amounting to a kind of prescription, distinguished in the polite world, by those exhibitions of the labours of our artists, which are submitted to public inspection. St. George's day was the time originally appointed for opening these gratifying spectacles; but it will easily be conceived, that the grace of a few days' longer, allows artists to finish more of those works on which they have been employed during the winter season, when the town is fullest of company. Pictures fresh from the easel, are by their novelty, of too much consequence to the artist and to the proprietor, to be omitted in this annual spectacle. It is true, that some pictures are improved by that gentle abatement of brilliancy in their colours, which a few weeks produces: and this may be favourable to them in a private apartment; but in an exhibition, as each is surrounded by neighbours of various hues and powers, the chance is somewhat against a piece which fails of that strength and vigour adjusted by the artist to the subject. It is well known, that a great part of the merit in a *Hanging Committee* is due to their association of performances; and the relief, or otherwise, given by one subject to another, according to the prevailing hue of its colouring. Not less depends on the position of a picture with respect to the eye; and these two principles contribute to explain the circumstance remarked by some, that pictures when in their places at home, look better (or worse) than they did in the exhibition room.

The works sent for exhibition to the Royal Academy are disposed in several rooms; the principal room is the upper, which being lighted from the top, shews the subjects it contains to advantage, whereas those which are seen by side lights from several windows, have but too often a vicious glare dazzling upon them, whereby their true effect is injured. Even drawings in water colours, in which a little gum is employed, suffer. It is perfectly natural, that the best works should be selected for the best places; hence the upper room is usually the repository of the greatest merit, and seldom have we seen this remark more completely justified than in the present exhibition.

The quantity of artists may be gathered from the number of pieces included in the catalogue (1113), the quality of the arts we would rather estimate from the contents of the upper room.

Whatever be the cause, Britain is the land of portrait painting; in this department of art we excel every nation, and it has received

among us improvements so considerable and so various, that artists of other countries may, without any disparagement to their abilities, study the works of our countrymen, with a view to improvement.

The landscape scenery of our island is distinguished by its own features, and these afford scope for the sublimest efforts of art. Our artists have studied them with success, and have thereby produced performances of great interest. History Painting has not been the forte of this country. It is a branch of art not suddenly brought to perfection. It requires much previous meditation, information, and consideration, as well as talent. Our artists seldom allow due time to their works of this description; they seldom ripen them by perseverance and study. What their mental conceptions suggest they execute instantly; but instant execution is no friend to historical excellence. Revision is indispensable; but while his imagination is filled with his subject, an artist cannot review himself. Let him some time afterwards come fresh to his work, he is another man; and his work is improved by his present criticisms on his former self. The disposition of the public to encourage historical pictures, is a distinct consideration.

We have hinted that the focus of merit is in the great room. The first picture we notice there, is Mr. WARD's "Waggon Horses frightened at lightning." A performance which very few masters could execute, and fewer could equal. Yet, we apprehend, as the artist has chosen to derive all the light of his piece from the lightning, he should have studied more closely the effect produced by that meteor. To our eye, there is too much of open daylight. A lesson from the late Wright of Derby, would have improved this picture.

We commended the "Witch" of HALL, in the British Institution, his "Wizard" has great merit; but the scattered lights on his drapery are injudicious; nor is the attitude of his hand and wand equal to what it might be.

TURNER's picture of the "Smith's Shop" is a truly masterly performance. The artist has produced a breadth, a harmony, and a variety, which shew that he understands his art thoroughly. But we must confess, that had he not informed us in the catalogue, that the smith "was disputing on the price of iron, and the price charged to the butcher for shoeing his poney," we should never have found out the subject of their disputation. Had the smith held a newspaper, and the subject of harangue been Buonaparte, it might have been at least equally expressive. We recommend to Mr. T. the subject in Shakespeare, of the "smith standing to hear the tailor's news"—if any body can do it justice, Mr. T. can.

Mr. WEST, the President, has composed a monumental subject in commemoration of Lord Nelson, in which he has combined the

the three arts professed in the Academy, Sculpture, Architecture, and Painting; the thought is ingenious, but we doubt its effect in execution. The colours of the picture do not agree with the uniform whiteness of the marble, &c. to say no more. The allegorical figures are in colours; the soldiers and sailors in marble. Has the artist tried the effect of a picture in *Chiaro Oscuro*?

On his "Bacchante sleeping" Mr. WESTALL has bestowed all the "treasures of his palette." The flowery effect of the accessories is prejudicial to the importance of the figure. His "Flora unveiled by zephyrs," is liable to a similar censure. The *weight* of her garland of roses should be diminished. The zephyrs are all *fac similia* of each other; no variety of complexion, but red or brown, precisely, much too precisely in the *same* places. There is a richness of effect in this picture; but it needs reflection and revision.

Mr. WESTALL has taken pains with his subjects from the life of Lord Nelson; and they do him great credit. If we were to criticise any thing in them, it should be that kind of affectation of composing "a good figure" to which artists are apt to sacrifice simplicity and truth. In the first of these, Lord Nelson's figure is too smart, too graceful for the occasion; in the second, the colouring of the Spanish captain dying, is too corpse-like for the moment; in the third, the figures lying dead in the boat, may be either British or Spanish. Nevertheless, we reckon these among the most interesting subjects in the room.

There are a few other pictures of Historical, or other, subjects, by HOWARD, THOMPSON, and others.

The "Blind Fidler" of WILKIE is an admirable performance; it possesses great truth and force of expression, attentive finishing, without being labourled to stiffness; a perfect magic of light and shade, and an accuracy of drawing attended to *throughout*, which is highly commendable. The characters of the heads are completely natural, happily varied, and well selected. Whether there is not somewhat of a *blackish* hue a little too predominant in this picture, *time will shew*.

In speaking of the portraits, we cannot help noticing a fault which may be deemed prevalent; the clouds, in those subjects which require them, are unnatural and unwarrantable; they are black, heavy, and approach the figures, almost within grasp. This was certainly a blemish in many of Sir JOSHUA REYNOLDS's works; it is not nature, and we protest against it.

LAWRENCE's Conversation of Messrs. Barings and Mr. Wall, is one of the most scientific pictures that we have ever seen from his pencil. It is true to nature, and has great spirit.

Sir W. BEECHY has managed several of

his subjects with great skill and delicacy. In some of them he has approached as near to life, as colours and canvas permit.

HOFFNER has some very good pictures.

Portraits are numerous in the present exhibition; as they have ever been.

The *Landscapes* have much merit; and generally speaking, they form a very attractive portion of the spectacle.

We might particularise those of ARNOLD, CALCOTT, LOUTHERBOURG, (whose Italian sea-piece is very good; but his evening is too red, and this redness is of a peculiar cast, not that of nature) FREEBAIRN, TURNER, WARD, and others.

WARD has attempted a *rainbow*; in our opinion he would have succeeded better, had his clouds been less luminous. The rainbow has foiled every artist who has endeavoured to represent it; WRIGHT of Derby came the nearest to it, of any whom we recollect; but then, his composition was particularly suited to this object. The *water-gall* or second bow, is very rarely, if at all seen, unless on dark clouds, much darker than those of WARD's picture. He has also placed it too near to the primary bow.

There is much merit among the Drawings; but the absence of those which would have been furnished by the members of the "Society of Painters in Water colours," has not permitted that selection which might have been made. We never liked RAPHAEL SMITH better than this year; often have we regretted a *blackness* in which this artist indulged himself; but his pieces now exhibited are free from it. Stephanoff's sketches have merit. GREEN's "Graces conducting the Loves to market," is an instance of much labour bestowed on an unworthy thought; "Three droveresses driving a flock of sheep to Smithfield" however it may be allegorised, is of too *jobbing* a description to be elegant. We do not wonder that Mr. Scott's "Lay of the Last Minstrel," has furnished several subjects for the pencil. Had the idea of an *Aurora Borealis* flitting along the ground, occurred to Mr. GANDY, his "Roslin Castle" would have been the better for it. At present the "seemed all on fire" is too strong a contrast with the surrounding scenery; nor does any "battlement" or "buttress" blaze.

The illumination in STEPHANOFF's "Grave of Michael Scott" is not *magical* in its effect; surrounding objects under different receptions of light, might have given more expression to this subject.

Pocock has some good sea pieces.

Many of the *miniatures* are pretty; but we confess, we think the humanity of the Academy is much more conspicuous than its judgement in the admission of sundry articles in this department.

The Study of *Architecture* undoubtedly

merits, and meets attention in this kingdom. We remark with pleasure a good deal of ingenuity among the rising artists.

Among the *Sculptures*, there are we think, this year more good busts than usual. Bacon's "monument" is executed with uncommon delicacy. FLAXMAN's model for Sir Joshua Reynolds is good. We could have wished that all the models for Lord Nelson's and Mr. Pitt's monuments, had been collected in the British Institution. They have generally more merit in execution, than dignity or simplicity in conception. There is also a kind of pomposity in most of them, as if to shew the public that it had a magnificent spectacle for its money. The error seems to arise from introducing the composition of painting into sculpture. We happen moreover to know, that some of the most extensive designs executed in sculpture, were composed by painters; not much to their real advantage. Whereas in truth, the arts are different in their nature and execution; and they ought also to differ in their application.

THE EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.

This is the third of this Society's exhibitions. "Great merit in narrow limits," is the most honourable description to which performances of the nature of those under examination can aspire. Oil paintings are adapted to great works; and to distant inspection; they possess a force and depth of effect, which overpower the smaller exertions of water colours, and, by comparison, diminish the true importance of these minor performances. Yet in our climate, where capacious mansions are few, and snug residences are most in request, works of small dimensions may decorate our apartments with an acceptable and amusing variety.

The exhibitions of this society have shewn that this branch of art is capable of pleasing and striking effects, of being directed also to more extensive subjects than it had usually been, and of treating them with a depth of science, which had not heretofore been employed on them. We cannot with propriety say that this study is *new*; but, we might say, that it has lately risen in importance, and has acquired an air of novelty by the merit it has developed.

The principal application of water colours, is to Landscape. History is not satisfied with this manner, though some of the most valuable historical compositions that we have seen, were executed in water colours only. Portrait also prefers oil; except in the treatment of miniatures on ivory; when exquisite finishing compensates the absence of size and force.

There are not this year so many miniatures, or of the same description, as we have seen before in this society; there is however, an equal variety of Landscapes, possessing great

powers of effect, choice of scenery, extent of composition, and other interesting principles. The principal artists are NICHOLSON, SMITH, GLOVER, VARLEY, POCCOCK, SHELLEY, MUNN, PYNE, and CHALON.

Inattention to the merit of the several pieces in this exhibition, most certainly is not the reason why we do not particularize them, but absolute want of room in our work. It will be observed, that we restrict ourselves to such ideas as we conceive may improve the arts, and contribute to their refinement and perfection. No other motive has influenced a single hint which we have dropped. The omission therefore, of any artist's performances, is no proof of our having overlooked their merit. We have been gratified in many more instances than our limits permit us to express.

Mr. STOTHARD has painted a picture, of Chaucer's Canterbury Pilgrims, of which the following is a description:—

The scene of the picture is laid in that part of the road to Canterbury, which commands a view of the Dulwich hills; the time, a beautiful and serene April morning. The interest of the procession is considerably heightened by the cheerfulness of the accompanying landscape. The pilgrims, with a proper regard to their respective characters, and the manner in which Chaucer describes them, are headed by the miller playing on his pipe, under the guidance of Harry Baillie the host; who, as master of the ceremonies, is represented on horseback standing in his stirrups, in the act of commanding attention to his proposal of drawing lots to determine which of the company shall tell the first tale. Near to him is a line of five characters: the knight; his son, the young squire; the Franklin, or country gentleman; the serjeant at law; the merchant, and the doctor of physic. The squire is mounted on a white horse near the knight, and betwixt these two figures is seen the Reve. Close behind the squire, his yeoman advances habited in green. The front of the next groupe is also composed of five characters: the lady abbess, her nun, the nun's priest, the good parson, and his brother the ploughman. The figures immediately behind the lady abbess, are the shipman, the Oxford scholar, the manciple, and (though last mentioned, not least in regard) Sir Geoffrey Chaucer, copied from the picture in the British Museum, painted by Thomas Occleve, who, being one of the poet's scholars, has, it may be fairly presumed, left a correct resemblance of his master. Every attention has been paid to the ancient costume of this country; and it is thought by very competent judges, that in the whole, antiquarian exactness has been in an eminent degree combined with picturesque effect.

We have examined this picture with attention, and frankly admit its merits. Yet, had we been consulted, we should not have advised the perfect similarity in dress of the Friar and Monk, who ride together, since the orders of these were different; nor the *same colour* as marks the dress of these parties, appearing in *three* of the horses in the cavalcade. The cavalcade itself, also is too much on one line; a gentle turn of the road would have allowed room for more variety of appearance. As to the characters and dresses, we applaud the attention to fidelity; nor shall we remark that the Abbess, or that the Wife of Bath, is too young, or that Harry Baillie's horse is too small.

Mr. Bromley is to engrave the print the same size as the picture; 3 feet 1 inch long, 10½ inches high. Prints £3 3s.

We have formerly suggested the idea that the British Institution should be a *depositorium* for whatever undertakings of Art were entitled to be considered as national. We have now repeated this proposal, on the subject of the monuments to Mr. Pitt, and to Lord Nelson. But we also think it is due to the importance of the Art of Engraving, as its labours are not admitted by the R. A., to insist that this also should have some public situation allotted to it, where the claims which it prefers to public protection, may be vindicated. To take as an instance the subject before us; it must needs be satisfactory to the public to see the progress of this plate by a frank exhibition of proofs, with other information, as may be proper. Such conduct on the part of the proprietors would ensure public confidence; which has been much shaken by the length of time consumed on the Major Pierson, the Chatham, Gibraltar, &c.

The Royal Academy has lately lost three of its members, eminent in different branches of art. MR. EDWARDS, MR. OPIE, and MR. GILPIN. We offer brief memoirs of each.

EDWARD EDWARDS was born in 1737, in the parish of St. Anne, Soho: of reputable but not wealthy parents. He received an education not much above what is common; and the weakly frame of his body, which appeared in the malconformation of a part of it, seemed to forbid the expectation of any great vigour of mind. He was, however, of an independent spirit, true, upright, and religious. He attached himself to the Arts with zeal; and profited effectually by studying the casts from the antique at the Duke of Richmond's gallery, at Whitehall. He was several times rewarded by the Society for the encouragement of arts. He was one of the first pupils admitted in the Royal Academy; and here he improved that style which he had before acquired. In 1775 he visited Italy. He kept a journal during his travels, and made many shrewd remarks on men and manners. In France he foresaw that general

corruption would issue in general convulsion. He also read much; had a good memory; was agreeable and even edifying in conversation; his judgment was correct; and his knowledge extensive. In 1775 he was chosen associate of the Royal Academy: in 1778 he was appointed Teacher of Perspective: on which subject, he afterwards published a volume. He understood architecture; and well knew the difference between what was fashionable and what was correct. He employed much of his time in collecting and arranging historical facts relative to the arts in Britain: intending a continuation of Walpole's "Anecdotes of Painting." This work is advanced at the press, and will be completed. He was also a proficient in music and poetry.

To what degree of eminence as an artist Mr. Edwards might have arrived, had not the tenderness of his constitution been a perpetual obstacle to his exertions, cannot easily be determined. But, when the energies of mind are impeded by weakness of body, we are bound to treat every attainment with respect, and to put the most favourable construction on every failure. Mr. E. was not a popular artist; those who sought dignity of composition, or greatness of expression, were seldom satisfied with his works. Vigour and grandeur rarely characterised them. They were rather timid than bold, rather feeble than daring, rather correct by restraint than striking by powerful conception. They were neat and orderly, not ardent or impressive: they were, like his moral self, not to be impeached in respect to their regularity: but they manifested no glow of imagination, nor attempted to "snatch a grace beyond the reach of art."

His sister, who lived with him, discharged the offices of tenderness with indefatigable assiduity: and, as he left little property behind him, the Royal Academy, with an attention which merits praise, took this circumstance into *immediate* consideration, and honoured the memory of its late teacher by a liberal endowment to his surviving, and only near relative.

SAWREY GILPIN, had long been eminent as a painter of animals: he gave to his horses especially, great truth and animation, to his wild animals, great vivacity and character.

He was not incapable of treating the human figure with propriety; and he painted landscape with skill. But, his best pictures, are those to which Barrett put in the landscape, and Cosway, or Zoffani, or some other professional portrait painter inserted the figures. We remember the first picture which brought him into general notice: it was Gulliver addressing the Houyhnhnms (horses) in which the expression he had given to the horses was striking. He afterwards painted several other pictures of a like nature, such as Gulliver

explaining the uses of fortifications, &c. These, with many others, were exhibited at Spring Gardens, with the Royal Incorporated Society of Artists, of which Mr. G. was, for a time, a Director and President. Some of his best works of this kind were exhibited at the Society's Room near Exeter-Change. He also painted many pictures of wild animals: a fox-hunt, of very large dimensions: groups of tigers, lions, &c. &c.

These are spirited performances; they are at the same time correct: the pencilling is lively, and they seldom leave the eye or the mind disappointed. The colouring is chaste, usually harmonious: and in some the expression, which we think was Mr. G's *forte*, is extremely interesting. His horses, frightened at lightning, at a serpent, &c. are instances in proof of this.

Mr. Gilpin was descended from an ancient family in Cumberland. He was born at Carlisle, where his only surviving brother, Joseph Dacre Gilpin, Esq. has worthily discharged the duties of the highest civic honours. He early imbibed a taste for the arts, and came to London for the purpose of indulging and cultivating it. His brother, the Rev. William Gilpin, obtained well-deserved celebrity, by his picturesque tours into various parts of this island. In these he was assisted by the painter, who not only etched a variety of examples for their ornament and illustration, but contributed, by the correctness of his judgment to heighten and increase their merit.

Mr. G. was fond of making sketches; and during the latter years of his life, he contributed to augment the portfolios of many amateurs. Not many artists have gone through their professional life with more steady reputation; not many have left an equal number of productions, respectable, interesting, and meritorious.

He died at Brompton, in April, 1807, aged 73.

JOHN OPIE was born May, 1761, in the parish of St. Agnes, about seven miles from Truro, in Cornwall. His father and grandfather were reputable master-carpenters. He acquired all the learning which the village afforded, in his earliest days: and at the age of ten years, had even solved many difficult problems in Euclid. Shortly after, at twelve years old, he embraced an opportunity of teaching others: and set up an evening school in St. Agnes, where he instructed pupils of nearly twice his own age, in arithmetic and writing: branches of study in which their tutor excelled. His father was anxious to bring him up in the family business, and bound him apprentice to himself; but the mind of the boy proved too powerful for his engagements, and the labour of the plane was abandoned for the delights of the pencil.

Mr. Hoare, in a number of the "Arist," which he has devoted to the commemoration of Opie, relates several instances of his early attachment to the arts. His eye was correct, and his memory good; he therefore improved himself even by stealth, and copied by recollection when he could not obtain possession of an original. At length his father's opposition to the pursuits of young Opie gave way, being partly removed by the interposition of the stripling's uncle, who foresaw better things than the anxious father could be induced to believe.

Dr. Wolcott, also, (more celebrated as the facetious *Peter Pindar*, Esq.) who then resided at Truro, and himself handled the pencil, assisted the young scholar with instruction, advice, and the loan of a few passable pictures. He soon became known in the neighbourhood as a portrait painter, and met with patrons. About 1777, when he was sixteen years of age, he was employed by Lord Bateman, to paint heads of old men, beggars, gypsies, &c. He treated these with surprising force, and truth; but something of the "coarse complexion, and cheek of sorry grain," which he so well imitated, adhered to him ever after: and it may be thought that his too intimate study of these models was little favourable to the refinement of his taste, or to the development of those talents of higher rank, of which his mind was susceptible. He was, however, a painter; and exercised his talent with applause, at Padstow, at Truro, and at Penryn; thence he removed to Exeter; and at length, when about nineteen, to London. We remember his first picture, which was distinguished by a sallowness of colouring, natural, no doubt, but unrefined.

The singularity of a boy, drawn from a tin-mine in Cornwall, for a time procured him employment: but after the novelty was over, and some other wonder of the day had succeeded, Mr. O. found that his dependence for ultimate success, must be on merit of a different description. We have seen that he was not a profound *ignoramus*, by report of which adventitious merit fame heightened his character. He possessed the rudiments of knowledge; and he now directed them to his advantage: he read, he studied, he meditated, and he gradually acquired an acquaintance with general history, and science, which opened his mind, and gave more extensive scope to his talents. From ceasing to be a curiosity, he was becoming an artist: exerting his native abilities, but under the guidance of superior information, he was rising fairly into fame, and much was anticipated from his efforts. In this, his friends and the public are disappointed, and his fame must rest on what he had executed, when he was

taken away from the further prosecution of his studies. He died April 9th. 1807.

Mr. O. was appointed Professor of Painting to the R. A. on the resignation of Mr. Fuseli; and shortly before his death, which was almost sudden, he had delivered four interesting lectures to the students of that institution. He left no children; but his loss is deeply deplored by an amiable widow; and by every friend to the arts. It is to his honour, that he was dutiful to an aged parent; of a tranquil and forgiving disposition; studious, industrious, communicative, independent; open, in speaking his sentiments; and after the unpolished bias of his manners had been overcome, friendly, benevolent, and affectionate.

Mr. Opie wrote the life of Reynolds, in Dr. Wolcott's edition of Pilkington's Dictionary: also, a letter first published in the Morning Chronicle, since adopted by Prince Hoare into his "Inquiry into the Cultivation of the Arts of Design in England." (Vide Panorama, Vol. I, p. 707) Both these compositions are creditable to his literary abilities.

But Opie's pictures are the only fair subjects of criticism. Grace was not his talent. His *Seppah's Daughter* is not graceful: his *Amoret* is not graceful. Neither was his colouring beautiful. In his escape of Gil Blas, the lady who holds the torch, is painted with a day-light (not torch-light) colouring. This was owing, it is presumed, to his *painting nothing but from a model*. Whatever the model was, that was his imitation of it; he rarely raised the character of his subject; but "rather bent his subject to the figure, than the figure to his subject." What *was* there, he saw; but what *ought to have been* there, he did not see. He formed no idea in his own mind, and by that supplied defects, or removed blemishes: he contented himself with fidelity; and deviated nothing from what he considered as nature. But *this* he presented with strength: what he beheld he imitated powerfully. His expression was truth: his composition of effect, was *broad*: and this is his eminent quality.

His composition of figures is seldom beyond improvement; their combination is rarely complete. Each alone may be well; yet together they are defective. Even his portrait figures are not always in alliance duly intimate with the back grounds. Yet of many the back ground is good, and the figure is good. There is in them much of nature, but a visible deficiency of art. There is much vigour, but little delicacy of thinking; they are not refined, they are not heightened, but they are natural. He could not give dignity, but he could adopt it; he imparted no superiority of character, or of elegance, of taste, or of suavity: but when he had superior character before him, he produced his best pictures.

It is not wonderful that under these circumstances his heads should do him the greatest honour. Some of these are almost alive. His portrait of Holcroft, of Tresham, and that of Mr. Dingwall, (in the present exhibition) almost breathe. His most graceful picture is that of Mrs. Cary, in the present exhibition; yet, in this, a straight up, leafless, long stem of a tree, sins against art. The head is finely painted, yet the arms want a proportionate warmth in them. In his portrait of Lord Lowther, the robes fall in a downright length, which Sir Joshua Reynolds would never have endured. Opie *saw* them fall so; it cannot be doubted; but this is not all which should have been seen. His portrait of the Duke of Gloucester is good: yet, the *new* robes exacted not so much fidelity as he has bestowed on them.

Opie, then, is an example whose defects are to be avoided: but after we have pointed them out, there still remains so much merit, that we sincerely lament his loss, his premature loss, which has left a void among our artists that will not easily be filled up. He will not descend to posterity as a perfect painter, but he will be quoted as an instance of a strong mind, whose uniform and persevering efforts directed to one object, produced performances which may be set by the side of those acknowledged by the greatest names, without shrinking from, or suffering by, the comparison.

COMBINATION AMONG THE JOURNEYMEN
CALLICO PRINTERS; AND ULTIMATE RE-
JECTION OF THEIR BILL, ON APRIL 23;
WITH PARTICULARS OF THAT TRADE.

In our first volume (vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 1060, 1067, we resumed the subject of combinations among the journeymen in that staple article our woollen manufactures, on which we had given a report of the committee of the Hon. House of Commons, pp. 120, 121. We also gave a caution deduced from the conduct of our rival, France, on the subject of deterioration of her goods, in the present volume, p. 391. We think that we shall do service to our country, if we state some of those causes which have produced much the same evils among our manufacturers in the cotton branch; and this the rather because the Bill brought into Parliament on behalf of the journeymen, after many petitions *against* it, and several postponements of the second reading, was on April 23, dismissed without a division.

It may be proper in the first place to state the number, connections, and relative depen-

dences of the different branches of this manufacture; which are, perhaps, little known to the public.

If we take the Callico Printers at 7,000,* the number that signed the petition, we may reckon three persons to each printer, employed in the print works, making in the whole 21,000. Every printer will employ nine weavers to make the cloth he prints; now supposing the printer to print three pieces per day, and the weaver to weave two pieces per week, the number will be 63,000. These 63,000 weavers will employ 25,000 persons in making the yarns ready for the loom. According to this calculation, it appears, that there are 109,000 persons dependent on the 7,000 printers, so that every printer set to work, will employ nearly 16 persons in all the different branches of the cotton business.

It is a certain fact, that the restraining of masters from taking apprentices, has induced many to print greater quantities of single colours, on machines, than they otherwise would have done; this contracts and limits taste and fancy, and prevents a greater variety of work from being introduced into the business, which deprives the journeymen of much work, for want of apprentices to do plain and easy work at a moderate expense. Chintz patterns, of six or eight colours, which afford much work for the journeymen, could not be executed on account of the great expense; and this restraint would lessen the sale of prints, by lessening the variety, and force a simple style of work of one and two colours, that might be done principally by machines; but should the fashions abroad and at home change, and instead of single colours done by machines, our customers should want patterns from 3 to 7 colours done by printers only, they would require near one half more than there are now in the trade. What would the consequence be, if the masters could not take apprentices? Either our markets for printed calicoes would only be half supplied, and one half of our weavers would be deprived of work, or one half of the calicoes now printed would be sold in the white, for want of workmen to print them.

The masters have laid out not less than two millions in establishing works, for the accommodation of the business, and if the trade be thus injured, their loss will be immense.

* We take these *data* from a petition to the House of Commons presented by the journeymen callico printers, who estimated themselves at 7,000. But we have some reason to suppose they included in that number the designers, and the block cutters, which may be 2,000, and the above calculation must be reduced accordingly.

It is asked also, what is to become of that master who being limited to a number of apprentices, proportionate to the number of his journeymen, should experience a slack or loss of business? Can he dismiss his apprentices? No; for he is under indentures to them. Must he retain his journeymen then in proportion to his apprentices? This is inevitable ruin, when he has nothing for them to do.

The importance of this trade to government is undeniable:

The present duty on printed calicoes is about 6s. 3d. per piece, taking an average of the cloths; and supposing one printer to print three pieces per day, the revenue arising from this one printer, will be £292 10s. per annum, and supposing 7,000 printers to be employed, will produce £2,047,500 per annum.

It was also observed in the discussion in the House of Commons, by Mr. Jacob, that in 1791, this country only exported to the value of one million annually in cotton goods; but now, in sixteen years after that period, the quantity exported amounts to £9,750,000 being more than one-third of the whole amount of our exports. This great increase is owing to the skill and talents of callico printers. In the infancy of this trade, some degree of philosophy was necessary, and a considerable knowledge of chemistry; but now, by the division of labour, the business of a callico printer does not require more skill than any other handicraft trade, and therefore the present race of callico printers are not entitled to better wages than most other mechanics. It is allowed, that a boy of fourteen could, in a few months, learn the whole business, and yet the average wages were twenty-five shillings a week, although the workmen lived for the most part in the northern counties, where those wages would go much farther than they would in a southern county.

From the history of this combination, so far as we have been able to obtain it, it appears that the Callico printing business of this kingdom was originally carried on in and about London; it afforded the masters great profits, and the servants high wages, there being little competition.

Mr. Smith, on joining Messrs. Livesey and Co. wishing to have the work done well, engaged a number of the London journeymen to work at Mosney, in Lancashire, in 1783; and to this time we are to look for the beginning of that extensive combination which has caused so much trouble in the business of callico printing. So soon as these *gentlemen journeymen* (for they had more the appearance of gentlemen than workmen) got down into the country, they assumed (as coming from London) a great degree of consequence; and as these journeymen had so long complained

of the country people doing their work low, their great object was to advance wages, to keep them as high in the country as in London, and in consequence, this house had such sums of money to pay in wages, that they were under the necessity of keeping persons constantly collecting cash in different parts of the country. But this was not the worst; so ill disposed were these journeymen to the country masters, that they executed their work in a very imperfect manner, and would often tell the over-looker, when he complained of bad work, that it was good enough for the country. It is even said, that some of them actually burnt their pieces, to avoid abatements for spoiled work.

The acting partners now attempted to lessen the expense of the work by means of machinery and apprentices; but the journeymen, to prevent the use of machinery and the taking of apprentices, entered into a combination, "*turned out!*" and succeeded in taking from their work the apprentices also, for the purpose of enforcing their unjust demands. This happened in 1785 and 1786; but after a struggle of three months, the workmen at the other print-grounds began to think their cause a bad one, and having reason to believe, that *the manager of this combination, who pretended so much concern for the good of the trade, was embezzling their money*, they left off subscribing; the consequence of which was, the Mosney workmen felt the necessity and equity of going to work on their master's terms, who now did better work than ever they did before.

The trade in 1789 went on well, and workmen were much wanted; a greater opportunity was therefore given to the old ring-leaders of forwarding a new combination.

Meeting after meeting was audaciously held; subscription after subscription was illegally enforced, by these demagogues; and at every meeting they made oppressive regulations, which operated as fresh impositions on their masters; numerous officers also were appointed for enforcing these regulations; and, all this at a time when the demand for goods was so great, and workmen so much wanted, that premiums were given for them by the masters, to the amount of 5, 10, and 15 guineas per man;* so

* This is a measure we cannot avoid condemning. How much more effective would it have been for the masters, one and all, to have resorted to the only practicable and sure mode of repelling combination, and at the same time of rendering an essential service to the community at large, by increasing their means of carrying on business with APPRENTICES.

The *Apprentice system*, in all our staple manufactures, nay, in the arts and sciences

untrue are the assertions of the men, that distress and want of work, was the cause of this combination. The combination being thus generally established, their high wages enabled them to subscribe more largely to their fund, and they applied their unjust laws with greater severity; — this caused some of the masters to throw off the yoke.

The power of the combination continued still to increase, as well as their funds; they now levied fines, from 5 to 15 guineas upon any journeymen that disobeyed their orders, whom they called *knob-sticks*. Both the masters and workmen were now completely at the controul of this combination; few apprentices were taken, and for every one they permitted their masters to take, they demanded 5 guineas premium, either from the master or the apprentice, which *permission money* they put to their general fund. But that which was found more grievous to the masters, was the premiums given to the journeymen; which tempted the men to leave their employ, often in debt, their work unfinished, and without a day's notice. This being too bad to be borne, it was agreed

themselves, is what every wise politician, every provident statesman, will, and must commend.—For surely, to train up our children and youth in habits of industry, to increase without restriction, our manufactures for foreign markets, and at the cheapest possible rate, is a policy so congenial to British enterprize, that it becomes every British spirit to encourage and cherish it. On this, depends the means of extending our manufactures, our trade, our commerce in every market; and to every port of the world.

What would become of our Navy, were apprentices *limited* in our dock-yards?—How are our merchants' ships, deeply laden with the produce of our manufactures, to fly from shore to shore, from pole to pole, if sail-cloth making were limited?—In short, what fate awaits the numerous productions which the envied genius of this isle produces, if her manufactures are to be controuled by a few demagogues—who, it must be again observed, never combine together but for the express purpose of enhancing labour, in the most mischievous ways possible; first, by increase of wages; and secondly, as a consequence, by lessening the time of labour.

Thus, they create a triple evil to the state; —1. By abridging the extent of her exports; —2. By idleness and dissipation, issuing in immorality among her subjects; —3. By creating burthens upon her parishes.

How widely different is this from that more generous and politic principle, which leaves trade, manufactures, and commerce, as free as the air we breathe!

by the masters, that each should give his servant when he left his employ lawfully, a written discharge; and that no master should employ another's servant, who had not with him such a discharge; purporting that he had finished his work, and left his master honourably.

This produced a "*General turn out*!"—and the country was thrown into great confusion. In the day-time, these men held meetings in woods and on commons, and drank and revelled in public-houses at night.

Sir Robert Peel saw and felt the injurious effects of this combination in Lancashire, and was under the necessity at this time of establishing print works at Tamworth in Staffordshire, where, free from the restraints and control of this combination, he has since printed from 40 to 50,000 pieces per annum, principally by means of machinery, and the laudable determination of introducing apprentices.

The masters were now enabled to do a tolerable quantity of good work, and the men out of employ finding their money rather low, wished to make an agreement with their masters, and had several meetings with them for that purpose; they at first thought to compromise matters by giving up their most extraordinary demands, that of the masters not being suffered to use machinery, &c. They wished the masters to discharge their new apprentices also, who had served them in their time of need; but the masters resolved to keep them on, and to manage their business without being controlled by their servants, at the same time giving them liberty to return to their duty; and promising their old wages. Having now been out upwards of four months, and their fund exhausted, they all returned to their work on their masters' terms, after expending near £5,000, besides the loss of their labour, which might amount to £10,000 more. During this *turn out* the masters had taken upwards of two hundred apprentices. They also made great improvements in machinery; by means of which, great quantities of goods were printed, independent of the journeymen.

This statement agrees with Sir Robert Peel's speech in Parliament (April 23) on the protracted motion for the second reading of the journeymen Callico Printers' bill, for penally restraining and limiting the number of apprentices. Sir Robert said, that the journeymen in their first demand of limiting the number of apprentices, seemed to act on the principle, that they were able by combination to give the law to the masters. This scheme however failed, and only occasioned the masters to bring many new hands into the trade. *There were many masters, who seriously thought of removing themselves and their capitals to some other country, where their properties would be better protected, and*

their trade be more free from restriction; for a man of property could never bear the idea of receiving the law, in every instance, from his journeyman. If it could be proved that this Bill would be for the advantage of the journeymen, he should not oppose it, as he considered that the interests of the greater number should be attended to in preference to the interests of the few; but he was convinced that a Bill like the present would be injurious to the whole trade, and consequently to the journeymen. He concluded by moving, that this Bill be read a second time on this day three months, which was carried, without a division; for, when the tellers were about to be appointed, no member was found, so lost to every principle of trade and commerce as to join them.

COMBINATION AMONG THE TYPOGRAPHIC, OR LETTER-PRESS PRINTERS.

We should have been glad if the fate of the Callico Printers' Bill had been attended with those effects which might have been expected on the revolvers among the journeymen Letter-Press Printers; but it is our duty to report, partly by way of apprizing the Public, in case any interruption of literary publications should take place, and partly by way of interesting intelligence to all who desire the welfare of Literature, that on April 28, 1807, a General Meeting of Booksellers of London and Westminster, was held at Stationers' Hall. Mr. Davies in the Chair. Among the Resolutions adopted by this meeting were the following:

"That no apprehension of the possibility of temporary inconvenience shall prevent this meeting from cheerfully and steadily co-operating with the Master Printers at the present juncture."

"That this meeting will heartily co-operate with the Master Printers in an application to Parliament, or in any other legal way, to put a stop to the present unwarrantable combinations among the Journeymen."

And on May 1, at the same place, was held a General Meeting of the Master Printers. Mr. Woodfall in the Chair. We shall transcribe some of the Resolutions adopted.

"Resolved unanimously, That it appears, from the unlawful and dictatorial combinations of the Compositors, that not only the Bookselling Trade, and Authors and Literature in general, but the Master Printers in particular, have suffered great inconvenience, and considerable loss and detriment; and that the prosperity of the Printing-Business is thereby in imminent danger."

"Resolved unanimously, That this danger arises from the aforesaid artful, pertinacious, and unlawful Combinations of the Compositors; who, by attempting to limit the number of Apprentices, would, if not frustrated, have completely the means within their power of enhancing the price of labour, and would render the Trade unable to enter into a competition with other markets where such causes do not operate; and by thus obstructing the increase of workmen, the employment and extent of our capital would be materially cramped, and the spirit of enterprize and the liberty of trade, so congenial to British Literature, would be in danger of being extinguished."

"Resolved unanimously, That it is therefore necessary, in order effectually to prevent such evils, for every gentleman of the profession immediately to take some Apprentices, and to continue so doing from time to time; convinced that no other measure can preserve the flourishing condition of the Printing Business, secure our rights from the greatest restraint, and ensure to Literature that freedom and encouragement in which the public, as well as ourselves, are so deeply interested."

Government is more interested in this than even in the Callico Printers' Combination, because the *Printing Business of the Parliament concerns the whole nation*: already has the Parliamentary business in many instances been impeded by the effects of this combination. The majority of the compositors employed by Mr. Hansard (Printer to the House of Commons) left him in February last, at a time when many Reports and other national concerns were printing in his office. In consequence, these were protracted in their time of appearance; and a complete (temporary) stop was put to literary works intended for the spring publication. Other Offices in the Metropolis have likewise been marked for ruin, and have had their business impeded by this desperate combination; which, however, we rejoice to hear, is now annihilating—thanks to the persevering and spirited resistance of the above and some others of the principal Houses in London.

We should be lost to every consideration of sound policy, and blind to the solid and permanent interest of our workmen, were we even for the present to dismiss this article, without strongly recommending to every Master, a perseverance in taking Apprentices; as the pure, effectual, and only means of continuing to invigorate the Liberty of the Press.

PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

—Homo sum,
Humani nihil a me alienum puto.

PORTSMOUTH AND PORTSEA LADIES' BENEVOLENT SOCIETY,

For the relief of the Wives and Children of Sailors and Soldiers, and other necessitous persons in sickness and lyings-in, has published a report, which is a pleasing statement of benevolence. Their charitable intentions have, in less than five weeks been directed to fifty-four cases of extreme indigence and distress. Twenty of these, it appears, have been discharged, one is dead, five have been dismissed as improper objects, and twenty-eight remain on the books. The relief afforded has been effectual, and received with the warmest gratitude. Above forty ladies have undertaken the office of *visitors*; who visit the objects, examine minutely into their *real situations*, and order such relief as may be requisite. As far as their authority and influence extend, the Society, it appears, wishes to combine instruction to the minds, with relief to the bodies of the poor—they require all persons receiving the benefit of the charity to attend *divine worship*, if able to leave their habitations. The Society states, what we hope will gain the attention of every feeling mind—that many cases of extreme indigence occurring, *any article* of clothing will be thankfully received by the Matrons, Mrs. Legg, No. 9, Barrack-street, Portsmouth; Mrs. Meads, No. 45, Britain-street, Portsea; and Mrs. Jarret, No. 6, Brick-kiln-row, Dock-row, Halfway-houses, for distribution.

We have merely to add our good wishes for its success; and trust that the farther support which their efforts may receive will prove adequate to the patriotism and benevolence of their object.

NEW SCHOOL AND SESSIONS HOUSE AT LONDONDERRY

The Bishop of Derry has proposed to the Grand Jury of the County of Londonderry to remove the establishment of the present Diocesan School to a more eligible situation, intending at the same time to enlarge and improve it. He has set the example of a munificent subscription for this purpose; and it is hoped that the gentlemen of the country will follow the example with spirit, as it cannot fail of becoming a source of improvement highly beneficial to the north of Ireland. The site of the present school is intended to be occupied by a new sessions-house for the city and county.

Application has been made to the proprietors of the land of the Great London Companies for this purpose.

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OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AMERICA (SOUTH).

Description of Maldonado.

Maldonado (where the English retired after evacuating Buenos Ayres) is described by Alcedo in his Geog. Dict. as a small city, with a good port, and lying in a beautiful bay. But, unfortunately, it is exposed to the S. E. wind which is very violent. Behind the city stands the guard-house of San Carlos, with a look out, and some houses inhabited by fisherman and tanners.

AUSTRIA.

Statistics and Conscription.

The latest statistic report informs us that the Austrian empire contains 11,680 square miles: population 23,500,000 persons: revenues 104,000,000 guilders: expenditure 103,000,000 guilders: national debt, 1 million 200 thousand guilders: army 344,315 men.

The population of the Austrian monarchy will it appears be put under a regulation of conscription, not unlike that which now obtains in France.

The same in all probability will be the state of the Hungarians: but this appears to be subject to the determination of the diet now sitting.

FRANCE.

Jewish Sanhedrin at Paris.

We know not well what to make of the proceedings of the Jewish Sanhedrin at Paris. Certainly the objects for which it was assembled have not yet appeared. This council has issued decrees against usury: but if what we have perused on the subject were all that passed, very trifling indeed was the knowledge of the Hebrew language which the speakers displayed. Our conjecture is that this decree is preparatory to a loan without interest for the Emperor and King. In pursuance of policy of the same description, this assembly has lately declared as one of the results of its consideration, that it is the religious duty of every Israelite born and educated in a state, or who shall become a citizen by residence or otherwise, to conform to the laws which determine the conditions of citizenship, to regard the said state as his country! It also invites the Israelites of the two States of France and Italy to acquire landed property, as a means of attaching themselves more to their country, of enabling them to renounce such occupations as render men odious and despicable in the eyes of their fellow citizens, and to do all which depends upon them to acquire their esteem and good will.

GERMANY.

State of Trade.

The *Moniteur* of April 21. asserts that the fair at Frankfort, was well attended and that much business was done, especially in leather.

VOL. II. [Lit. Pan. June, 1807.]

Several persons who sold English goods were arrested.

If the Frankfort fair were really well attended, it differed very much from the fair at Leipsic. There are two fairs annually held in this city: at Easter, and at Michaelmas. The Literary business which was formerly done at Michaelmas, is now done at the Easter fair.

The state of Literature may be estimated from the catalogues exchanged among the Booksellers at this opportunity: in 1804 the number of articles at Michaelmas amounted to 1640, in 1805 only to 645, but the Easter fair in 1805 amounted to more than 4,000. The state of trade may be estimated from the number of foreigners, which resorted to the fair: usually not less than 30, to 35,000, but in the present year, not more than 8,000 have attended there: and most of these were sellers; of which a considerable portion did not take money enough to pay their expenses. This state of things is attributed to the events of war, which have retained the Polish dealers at home, instead of coming to Leipsic to supply their wants. We learn that the scales of the Town, which used to be fully employed, at this fair, had nothing to do.

Rostock, May 11. We are in great want of English and Colonial goods. Coffee and sugar would find a ready sale: but the scarcity of cash is felt daily more and more. At Weimar trade is completely at a stand.

Venice is also in a state of stagnation as to commerce; and the principal houses have withdrawn, more or less, their capitals from mercantile concerns, and have dismissed their clerks. But there is some activity in the public dock yards.

They write from Trieste that their trade also suffers: they claim from the Russians above 2,000,000 of florins: from the English much more, for unjust captures.

Hungarian Diet.

The diet of Hungary has given a favourable answer to the requests of the Emperor of Germany: but have connected with it their declaration against being drawn into wars without a necessity which concerns themselves: they say, their military establishment is defensive. They request measures for reviving the trade of Hungary, particularly a free export to Galicia: also for working the Hungarian mines: for restraining the issue of bank paper: and that their sovereign, being no longer Emperor of Germany, would come and reside among them.

INDIES (EAST).

Lascar Invocation, and Ceremony of driving the Silver Nail, in Ship building.

Bombay, May 28, 1805.—A new frigate is building here for his Majesty's navy. Upon the stern being scarped to

the keel, the lascars of the yard made their usual invocation, and the Hon. the Governor (of Bombay) drove the silver nail over the union of these important parts of the frame, when a cocoa nut was broken, according to ancient custom. The ceremony being concluded, the Hon. the Governor presented the master builder and his assistants with shawls; and rose-water and sweetmeats were served in the dock.

Query, the particulars of the lascars' invocation: and the origin of this custom?

Several Pustules in Vaccination, in India.

We gave in Panorama, Vol. I. p. 978, a history of the transmission of the vaccine matter, to India; including a mention of more than one pustule performing its course on several subjects: to this a correspondent stated an objection, Vol. II. p. 92, that the symptom did not correspond to that of the *true* disease; we therefore transcribe another instance of this nature, which has occurred in India, being desirous of knowing whether the climate of that country, or what other cause, may be the reason of this particularity.

From a paper published by order of the Rt. Hon. the Governor in Council. Fort St. George, June 19, 1806.

"Extract of a Letter from the Dewan of Mysoor, dated 10th May.—The Raneé having determined to celebrate the nuptials of the Maha Rajah, deferred the ceremony merely because the young bride had never had the small pox.—I communicated the cause of the delay to Major Wilks, who recommended an operation invented by some skilful physician of England, and lately introduced into this country, which alleviates the violence of this pernicious disease.—The operation was accordingly performed by the resident surgeon, and in consequence, *six mild pustules* appeared on the young bride, who soon after recovered. The Raneé was made very happy thereby, and determined that the nuptials should also be celebrated within the year."

The marriage of the young Raneé of Mysoor, with his highness the Rajah of Mysoor, is mentioned in this paper, as having been "recently celebrated."

Combats of Wild Animals.

At Calcutta, on Tuesday last, was an exhibition of wild animals, at the menage. It appears that they were assembled for the amusement of the spectators; but, "the rencontre of so many animals, though it produced some fighting and confusion, did not produce that degree which it was natural to expect. Indeed it is observable that in a state of captivity, wild animals seldom shew that ferocity and animosity natural to them in the woods. There have been many exhibitions of this kind at different times in the

country, but we have heard of none, where the animals have not rather shunned, than courted the contest. We therefore think, that with *trained* animals, every successive exhibition would go off in a greater style than the preceding.—The antics of the bear were *genuinely ridiculous*; and it was the fate of one of the monkeys to be torn to pieces by some terriers."—*Calcutta Journal*, June 3, 1806.

Query, What was the precise nature of this exhibition?

Remarkable Storm: Attraction by an elevated Rock.

Trichinopoly, May 8, 1806.—"It would appear that the elementary powers, when in a state of effervescence and commotion, are particularly attracted by this rock;—few years pass without their visitation;—a storm, however, obtained here on Saturday last, which in its extreme violence exceeded all preceding. The hail stones were as large as pigeons' eggs—the power of the wind was irresistible—large trees were torn up by the roots—and many houses unroofed. The place is covered with ruins."

Increased Cultivation of Indigo, in Bengal.

Indigo has, in the two or three last years, become an article of cultivation with native sircars and other persons of property who have established numerous factories, in the various districts or zillahs of Bengal proper.... The petty factories of the natives are, we hear, very numerous in the districts of Jessore and Kishnagur, and also in Burdwan, bordering on the banks of the Hoogly river, from a little above Howrah to Cossimbazar..... The consequence of this must be an increase of the *ordinary* kinds of this drug; but some no doubt will attend to the production of a *superior* quality.

INDIES (WEST).

Present Negro Government of St. Domingo.

One of the New York Papers, states, that the Negroes of St. Domingo have adopted a new plan of Government. Christophe has been elected President for life, with a salary of 40,000 dollars a year. He has commenced his administration with a severe edict against smuggling, subjecting offenders to death and confiscation of effects.

Other accounts state that Christophe and his rival Petion, after violent contention have agreed to divide the authority between them. We should be glad to hear that they had each retired to a distinct division of the island.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

Scarcity.—The Sidney Gazettes have been received from New South Wales, to the 9th of November inclusive. The scarcity of grain was at that period so great, that wheat had been selling for several days at 4l. per bushel, and the price of the 2lb. loaf had risen to 4s 6d. Two quarts of green barley, just gather-

ed, sold for 5s. At the market, on the 1st of November, not a grain of either wheat or maize made its appearance. Fowls sold at from 8s. to 10s. per couple. and eggs at 3s. per dozen. At the market on the 8th, no wheat was to be had, and very little maize. Potatoes were eagerly bought at from 4d. to 5d. per pound; and the supply of vegetables in general very scanty. To add to the distress of the colony, several fields of young corn have been wholly destroyed by the grub. Considerable relief was, however, expected from the approaching harvest.

PORTUGAL.

Patronage of the Art of Engraving.

Letters from Lisbon inform us, that Bartolozzi, at the age of 82 years, continues to enjoy good health, and is engaged in giving fresh proofs of his superior abilities. The Massacre of the Innocents by Guido Rheni, has lately been engraved by him with his usual delicacy and expression: an Engraving of the Narcissus of Vieira will also soon make its appearance; the figures by Bartolozzi; the landscape by Le Conte. The Prince Regent has made him a Knight of the Order of Christ, and presented him with the insignia of the Order set in diamonds.

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

New College at Cambridge.

May 18. The foundation stone of Downing* College was laid by the Master, Professor, and Fellows first appointed in the Charter. On this occasion the University assembled in St. Mary's church at eleven o'clock, where a sermon was preached by the Public Orator, Dr. Outram; after which they proceeded to the Senate-House, and heard a Latin speech delivered by Mr. William Frere, the Junior Fellow. From the Senate-House a procession was made to the site of the future college, in the following order;—Esquire Bedells; the Vice-

* The foundation and erection of this College was from the following circumstances:—Sir George Downing, Bart. of Gamlingay Park, in the county of Cambridge, in the year 1717, devised all his valuable estates in the counties of Cambridge, Bedford, and Suffolk, to his nearest relations, being first cousins, &c. to each for life, with remainder to their issue in succession; and in case they all died without issue, he devised those estates to trustees, who, with the consent and approbation of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the Masters of St. John's and Clare Hall, should found a College within the University of Cambridge, which should be called Downing College. The annual salary of the Master is 600l.; of a professor, 200l.; of a fellow, 100l. or in that proportion.

Chancellor, in his robes; High Steward of the university; Commissary of the university; Noblemen in their robes, two and two; Doctors of Divinity, in robes, two and two; Doctors of Law and Physic, in robes, two and two; Doctors of Music; Public Orator; Assessor to the Vice-Chancellor; Professors of the university; Proctors in their congregation habits, followed by their men with the statutes; Public Registrar, and Public Librarians; Taxors, Scrutators, and other officers of the university; the Master of Downing col.; Chaplain; Professors of Downing col.; Fellows of Downing col.; Architect; Bachelors of Divinity and Masters of Arts, two and two; Fellow-Commoners, two and two; Bachelors of Arts; Under-graduates.—When the procession arrived upon the ground, the Master (attended by the other members of Downing col.) making a suitable address in Latin, deposited in the stone specimens of the different coins of the present reign; and placed over them a plate, upon which was engraved an inscription, containing a short memorial of the origin of the foundation and the objects of the institution. The Stone being placed in its proper situation, with the usual forms, a benediction was pronounced by the public Orator. At four o'clock the Heads of colleges, Noblemen, Professors, Doctors, and university officers, dined with the members of Downing col.; of whom were present, Dr. Annesley, the Master; Mr. Christian, and Sir Busick Harwood, Professors; and Messrs Lens and Frere, Fellows.—Mr. Meeke, the remaining Fellow, was absent from indisposition.—Among the university officers, the Earl of Hardwicke, High Steward, honoured the whole of the ceremony with his attendance, and dined afterwards with the col.—Mr. Watts, the University Printer, deposited in the foundation stone the first stereotype plate cast in this university, and which was dedicated to the Vice-Chancellor and Heads of Houses.—The Weather was remarkably fine and a large concourse was attracted, as well from the neighbouring country as from the town and university, to witness the various parts of a ceremony, which has of late so rarely occurred.—On Tuesday morning the col. held their first meeting since the commencement of the building, when Mr. George Spencer was appointed butler; and boards were directed to be procured, for the purpose of receiving the names of the members.

Buchanan's Sermon, Cambridge.

(Vide Panorama, vol. I. p. 1413.)

May 10. A sermon was preached in Great St. Mary's church, by the Rev. F. Wrangham, M.A. of Trinity col., on the subject of translating the Scripture into the Oriental Languages, agreeable to the proposition of the Rev. C. Buchanan, Vice-president of the col. of Fort William in Bengal.—The

Rev. J. Dudley, M.A. formerly Tutor of Clare hall, is appointed to preach the other sermon on the same subject, which will be previous to the commencement.

Portsmouth Naval College.

We understand that the establishment of the royal naval col. at this place, is to be considerably increased, and that there is to be a Mathematical Professor to superintend it, with a salary of near £200 per annum.

Monument to the Memory of Lord Nelson, at Liverpool.

As the following subject is by its distance from the metropolis precluded from our inspection, we could not with propriety admit it in our review of the annual exhibitions, in p. 621. Nevertheless, as it appears to be an ingenious conception, we record it for the honour of the town of Liverpool, and of the artist who is commissioned to execute it.

It is a splendid Naval Monument, to the memory of the late Lord Nelson, by subscription. It is to be executed by Mr. George Bullock, sculptor, of that place, for £8,000, in artificial stone, a composition of different vitrified substances, which unites the beauty of marble with the durability of bronze. Mr. Bullock has published the following description of the model, which has been approved of by the committee:

"In the statue of Lord Nelson, I have endeavoured to express that calm and dignified composure for which he was so pre-eminently distinguished in the hour of danger:—his effigy is, therefore, plain and simple, placed in a firm and decided attitude; the Union Flag and Anchor are introduced as the distinguishing marks of his professional rank, at the same time pointing out the means by which his fame and glory were obtained. The pedestal on which the hero stands, is encircled with a double coil of British cable, resting on the plinth, and enriched by the representation of his four principal engagements, viz. St. Vincent, the Nile, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar; four figures of victory, whose hands are united by crowns of laurel, suspended over each battle, are the supporters of this column, representing an unbroken chain of splendid victories. The cornice of the column is composed of leaves of British oak; on the sub-plinth are seated four nautical figures, emblematical of the four great battles fought; these figures do not convey any idea of captivity, more than is absolutely necessary to shew defeat; the body of the sub-plinth is enriched with the heads of the four ships in which these brilliant exploits were achieved; at once perpetuating the glory of the British Navy, and the ships by which its glory was confirmed. The heads of the men of war are to be fac-

similes of the respective ships, as in action, conveying to posterity the identity of the individual vessels which contributed to fix its fame on an immutable base. The whole is erected on a mural base, guarded by four lions couchant, emblematical of the indigenous and naval valor of Great Britain, forming the grand bulwark to the whole, and intimating, that courage is the surest guide to naval glory. On the projecting sides of the mural base, in raised bronze letters, appears a description of every battle, and of every ship engaged, together with that of its opponent, and on the front the sum total of the vessels taken and destroyed, by which each Captain's name becomes enrolled with that of his ship, and is handed down to future ages, together with his beloved and lamented chief. This monument, the grateful effusion of liberality to British valour and departed excellence, rises from an encircled quadrangle, containing 1,500 feet of water, to be supplied by the pipes already fixed, and which can easily be brought to feed the reservoir, appearing to issue from four heads placed in the intermediate spaces of the mural base, representing the four great and principal rivers of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, as contributing to commerce, and promoting that naval exertion, the cultivation of which has so firmly cemented the maritime interest and power of this proud and happy island. The circle is encompassed by a correct imitation of boarding nets, illumined by ships' lanterns; the whole forming an enriched Naval Pillar, of an order almost new; strictly conforming to the rules of Corinthian architecture, in all its dimensions, and possessing the peculiar recommendation of being indebted to no foreign adventitious ornament for its support; no *Heathen Mythology* is here introduced, nor any foreign attribute; as it has been my principal ambition to erect such a nautical monument, with *British materials*, as shall at once tell the history of that hero, whom Britons still lament, and convey to posterity the plain unvarnished tale of *British courage, fortitude, and glory.*"

Corn Exchange. The foundation stone of the intended New Corn Exchange, in Brunswick Street, Liverpool, has been laid. This building is intended for a general resort of the Corn Merchants, on the plan of the Exchange, in Mark Lane, London. It will be a very handsome structure, with a stone front to Brunswick Street, of plain Grecian architecture. It is a subscription building, a fund of £10,000 having been raised, by shares of £100 each.

Benevolent Society. A Society has recently been instituted at Bristol, under the denomination of the Samaritan Society, the object

of which are as follows:—to relieve patients dismissed from public institutions, under peculiarly distressed circumstances, especially females, for a short period, or until their health be restored, or their labour resumed; to relieve by visitors during sickness or severe distress, and at their residences, such industrious poor of the city as are not relievable under the rules of the several existing charities; and to assist such persons in obtaining parochial aid, especially those who belong to distant parishes.

Embankment at Carnarvon.

The embarkment and draining, to the S.W. of Carnarvon, is about to be carried into immediate execution; by which 3,000 acres of land hitherto of little value, will be brought into cultivation.

Collieries.

General Ward has made considerable progress in re-opening the extensive collieries originally begun by Mr. Townshend, on the Carmarthenshire side of the Burry river, nearly opposite the ancient corporate town of Loughor.

Potatoes.—A member of the Agricultural Society of Greenock has given the following account of an experiment relative to the planting of potatoes: the first year, says he, I cut the potatoes into three pieces, the top, the middle, and the bottom points, and planted them in three separate rows. The top plant was ten days earlier than the middle plant, and a much greater crop; the middle plant was earlier than the bottom, and a better crop; and the bottom produced but a very indifferent crop. For some seasons past I have set only the top eyes, and I believe I have the best crop, and driest potatoes in the country; nor do I think there is any waste in doing so, for I find the potatoes keep better by having a cut taken off them.

Light-House on the Bell Rock.

Preparations are now in considerable forwardness for carrying into execution that important work, a Light-house on the Bell Rock, at the mouth of the Firth of Forth. A metal crane, is erected on the quay at Aberdeen, for raising and putting on board vessels the very large granite stones intended as part of the building. Many of these stones weigh from one to four tons each. They will be shipped and landed at Arbroath, thence to be carried to the rock, which is about ten miles distant.

Ignis Fatuus.—Between nine and ten o'clock, on the evening of the 5th of May, John Stephens, a man who was returning from Euston to Fakenham, was struck with the following unusual appearance, shortly after his departure from the former place—A mass of light gradually spread from the top of his horse's ears till it quite covered the surface, and the space between the ears, while a few

luminous drops were sprinkled on the mane. The light was bright and sparkling; a clear amber, with a slight suffusion of blue; and the rider said that it appeared as though his horse's head were covered with glow-worms. He rubbed his hand along one of the ears, but could feel nothing; and the light again covered the part the moment that his hand was withdrawn. There was no sensation of heat, no smell of vapours; and his horse, which was going at a very gentle pace, seemed quite unconscious of the light which was diffused over his head. The luminous appearance kept its station, and preserved its brilliancy, to within a short distance of Fakenham parsonage, when it gradually and completely vanished.—The *Ignis Fatuus*, we believe, is very rare: the philosophical Dr. Darwin is said to have doubted its existence altogether; a circumstance at which we are somewhat surprised, as Dr. Derham, the Italian Philosopher, Beccari, Dr. Shaw, and others have recorded its actual appearance. The *Ignis Fatuus*, we have been informed, is by no means rare in Italian countries.

We remember many years ago to have seen an *Ignis Fatuus* which kept its station at the gate of a field, along which it danced with a swiftly vibratory motion.

Worcester and Birmingham Canal.

From Hopwood to Tardebig, a distance of five miles, was opened on Monday, March 30. This large canal is completed from Birmingham upwards of fourteen miles, half the way to the Severn, near Worcester, without a lock. The completion of this canal will be of great advantage to the Port of Bristol, as it is intended to enter the deep water in the Severn, below Worcester, which will render the conveyance between Bristol and Birmingham, and that by the Stafford, Warwick, Napton, &c. canals to London, certain, cheap, and expeditious.

Dreadful fire at Chudley in Devonshire.

The town of Chudley in Devonshire, about nine miles from Exeter, on the road to Plymouth, was wholly consumed by fire on Friday May 22. The Church is saved, and proved an Asylum for the unfortunate inhabitants. The number of houses burned is 175. The first relief experienced by the sufferers was a cart load of bread from Exeter. Provisions ready dressed, with other assistance of shelter, &c. have been sent by the Noblemen and Gentlemen in the neighbourhood. It is remarkable that many of the towns in Devonshire have been entirely consumed by fire: insomuch that the insurance offices always charge property in this county with additional insurance, and never expect to hear of a single house consumed by fire, but of a whole village or town. We suppose it is owing to the prevalent use of thatch for the roofs of the buildings.

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

Mr. George Bennett, who is recently returned from the continent, has in the press, and forward for publication, *A View of the present State of Poland*, which country he lately visited. It contains a description of the face of the country, its villages, towns, &c. a particular account of the peasantry, their persons, dress, and political condition; the customs and manners of the Poles, with a cursory view of the changes which have taken place consequent upon the dismemberment of their country.

Mr. Olinthus Gregory, A. M. of the Royal Military Academy, has in the press a Translation of the Abbé Hau's *Traité Élémentaire de Physique*, with notes, historical, illustrative, and critical. It will make two 8vo. volumes.

The Rev. Thomas Kidd, of Trinity College, Cambridge, proposes to publish a new edition of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*; of the *Iliad*, the Townleian Codex, aided by the Marcian MSS. and a faithful collation of the Harleian copies, will form the ground-work.

Messrs. Clementi propose to publish by subscription the Canzonets and Madrigals of Thomas Morley, Mus. Bac. Oxon, 1588. Containing, in one volume, twenty Canzonets for three voices, and twenty Madrigals for four voices, carefully arranged from several manuscript copies. Morley's Life will be prefixed.

Sig. Giuseppe Lanzo, sen. has issued proposals for printing by subscription a Treatise on Singing, containing the necessary instructions for students, from children of five years old to the most advanced in the science. The price to subscribers, one guinea and a half; to non-subscribers, two guineas: will be published when there are 400 subscribers.

To be published by subscription, respectfully dedicated (by permission) to the Right Hon. Lady Frances Harpur, Dr. Watts's Divine and Moral Songs for Children, set to Music in a familiar style, as Solos, Duettos, and Trios, with Accompaniment for Piano-forte, by B. Jacobs, organist of Surrey Chapel.

Mr. Thomas Hope has in the press a work entitled *Household Furniture and Decorations*, executed from designs by himself: it will consist of Perspective and Geometrical Views of Apartments, with their chairs, tables, sofas, candleabras, chandeliers, tripods, &c. &c.

An octavo edition will soon be published of Mrs. Carter's Translation of *Epictetus*.

A new edition of the *British Essayists*, in forty-five volumes, is in the press. This work, a very large impression of which was published in 1803, is nearly out of print. The editor has made considerable alterations and additions to the historical and biographical prefaces; and the *Looker-on* will be added.

Speedily will be published, in three volumes 12mo. *The World of Fashion*; with illustrations, scandal, histories, and characters. Written by Alfred Allendale, Esq. M. P. F. R. S. F. S. A. L. L. D. &c. &c. &c.

Miss Hirst has nearly ready for publication, *Helen, or Domestic Occurrences*, a tale, in two vols. dedicated to countess Fitz-william.

The author of *Mandeville Castle* has a novel nearly ready, entitled *Brighton, or the Fair East Indian*, in which will be introduced memoirs of the Green Man.

Soon will appear, in two volumes small octavo, a legendary tale, entitled, *Reading Abbey*, by Mr. T. Gleed.

Two magnificent editions of *Gil Blas* are in preparation, one in the original French, the other in English, both under the superintendence of Mr. Malkin, author of the *Scenery, Antiquities, and biography of South Wales*, and several other works, who has undertaken to supply the deficiencies of the English edition, under the name of Smollet, by an entirely new translation. These two editions are to be printed uniformly, in the best manner. They will be illustrated with plates, executed by the first engravers, from pictures painted by Robert Smirke, Esq. R. A.

It is proposed to publish by subscription a print, to be engraved by Anthony Cardon, Esq. from the original painting by Richard Westall, Esq. R. A. representing the most affecting Farewell of Mrs. Shaw to her Husband, as described by that poet in his celebrated monody. The size of the print 17 by 20 inches: price, one guinea; proofs, and prints in colours, two guineas. Half to be paid at the time of subscribing, the remainder on delivery at Christmas, 1807.

It is also designed to publish, as a companion to the above, a print from the character of *Fidelia*, described in the 449th number of the *Spectator*, engraved by Louis Schiavonetti. Terms the same as those of the former print. The drawing is by Mr. Westall. Either print may be purchased separately.

Proposals have been issued for publishing by subscription, in quarto, a set of views, illustrative of Mr. Walter Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel*. Consisting of twelve views on the rivers Borthwick, Etrick, Yarrow, Teviot, and Tweed. To be engraved by James Heath, R. A. from drawings taken on the spot, by J. C. Schetky of Oxford, with anecdotes and descriptions by Mr. Scott; to be accompanied with historical vignettes.

Mr. Byerley's translation of the celebrated Machiavel's great work, *The Prince*, is in the press. Mr. B. has added notes to his translation, in which he attempts to prove that Bonaparte has invariably adopted the maxims of that great statesman, in all his conquests: and that we have only to consult *The Prince*,

to discover a clue to his past and future conduct. It will be one volume octavo, with a fine head of Machiavel.

Mr. Byerley's new translation of Don Quixote, which has been finished these two years, will immediately be put to press, and appear in six elegant cabinet volumes, embellished with fine engravings.

Proposals have been circulated for printing by subscription, in octavo, price 10s. 6d. a volume of sermons, by the Rev. H. B. Wilson M. A. Curate and Lecturer of St. Michael's Bassishaw, &c. and one of the masters of Merchant Taylor's school, London.

It is proposed to publish by subscription Ten Sermons, as preached in Oxendon and Woburn Chapels, by the Rev. William Cockburn, A. M. Christian Advocate in the University of Cambridge, price to subscribers 7s. 6d. to be paid on delivery.

Mr. J. Campbell, author of "Worlds displayed," and other works, will shortly publish the Voyages and Travels of a Bible.

It is designed to publish a third volume of sermons, by the late Mr. A. Swanston, preacher of the gospel in the Secession Church.

Volumes I. to VIII. of the new edition of BISHOP HALL'S WORKS, have been regularly published, once a quarter; of these, vols. I. and II. contain the *Contemplations*; vols. III. and IV. the *Expositions of hard Texts*; vol. V. is the Bishop's *Sermons*, vol. VI. his *Devotional Writings*; and vols. VII. and VIII. his *Practical Writings*; vol. IX. containing the whole of his *Polemical Works*, which should appear, in regular course, at Midsummer, will be delayed a month or two beyond that time, by its magnitude (extending to about 800 pages,) and the great quantity of the notes. Vol. X. including the *Miscellaneous Works*, with a *Life, Glossary, Index, &c.* will appear in the winter.

Mr. Elton has nearly completed a poetical translation of Hesiod, with dissertations and notes.

Lord Byron, a minor, will publish a volume of poems in the course of this month.

Mr. Belfour's version of a poem on the Dignity and Charms of Music, from the Spanish of Tomas de Yriarte, will speedily appear.

Mr. Coleridge has two new volumes of poems in the press, which will shortly make their appearance.

Proposals have been circulated for publishing by subscription, a portrait of William Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. dedicated by permission to the Rev. the Dean of Carlisle. The engraving is from the crayon picture of the late John Russel, Esq. R. A. in possession of Rev. Dean of Carlisle: said to be a strong characteristic likeness. Mr. Heath has undertaken to engrave it in his first style of elegance. Price to subscribers one guinea: to non-subscribers the price will be considerably raised.

The precise order of subscription will be rigidly attended to in delivery of the prints.

Nicholas Carlisle, Esq. Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries, has just sent to the press a work of great and general utility, a Topographical Dictionary of England. It contains an accurate delineation of each county,—hundreds, lathes, wapentakes, &c. the population of each parish and township, from the returns made to government in 1801; the parochial assessments according to returns made in 1803. Likewise an account of ecclesiastical benefices, their patrons, their value in the King's books; with an account of the tutelary saint of each church. It will also include a vast variety of other particulars relative to the situation of post towns, markets, fairs, corporations, free schools, and religious houses, members of parliament, assizes, petty sessions, &c. &c. The whole has been collected with great labour and pains from the most authentic sources. It will be arranged in alphabetical order.

Proposals have been issued for publishing by subscription, a history of the County of Cardigan, by Samuel Rush Meyrick, A. B. of Queen's College, Oxford, which will be illustrated with 18 plates, from drawings made on the spot by the author, and engraved by the most celebrated artists in this country, one large volume, quarto.

In the course of the ensuing month will be published, in 3 vols. 12mo. Letters from England, by Don Manuel Alvarez Espriella, translated from the Spanish.

Mr. Pinkerton, has undertaken to edit A General Collection of Voyages and Travels, forming a complete history of discovery by sea and land from the earliest ages to the present time.

Dr. Walker has prepared for the press an Essay on Vaccination, with some account of its rise and progress, of the authors who first established the practice, and of the associations formed in the metropolis for its future propagation.

A new and improved edition of Mrs. Le Rosy's novel, entitled Village Anecdotes, will be published this month.

The Misanthrope Father; or, the Guarded Secret. A novel founded on facts; in 3 vols.

Speedily will be published, by subscription, price 5s. by Anne Pile, Female Art; or, Wit's Worst Shift. In which is shewn the influence which the notions of a false virtue had upon the human mind—a recent and proveable fact.

Miss Sophia Francis, author of Constance de Lindensdorf, and Vivonia, has just put to press a romance, entitled, the Nun of Misericordia, in 4 vols.

Speedily will be published. The Unnatural Grandmother; or Who was she? With an essay on origin, in which will appear some

curious family anecdotes, and original and elegant letters from a mother to her son.

The new edition of Pope's works, by the Rev. W. Lisle Bowles, will be published in a few weeks. This edition is enlarged by a series of notes and illustrations by the editor and other learned friends, and by a volume of letters between Pope and his correspondents, never before published, which have been supplied from the library of a noble Marquis. With a considerable number of portraits, not hitherto engraved, of Pope's illustrious friends, which will form a valuable addition to English Series. In ten volumes octavo, with an additional volume in quarto, and another in octavo, to suit Ruffhead's and Warton's editions.

A new edition of Robert Fergusson's Poems, handsomely printed, 8vo. with a true account of his life and writings, will shortly appear.

A new and enlarged edition of the Biographia Dramatica, or Companion to the Playhouse, is in preparation, containing historical and critical memoirs and original anecdotes of Dramatic Writers, from the commencement of our theatrical exhibitions; among whom are some of the most celebrated actors; also an alphabetical account of their works, the dates when printed, and occasional observations on their merits: together with an introductory view of the rise and progress of the British Stage. The last edition of this work was executed (though anonymously) by the late Mr. Isaac Reed, the well-known and able commentator on Shakespear, who had made considerable progress in a new edition, which should bring the work down to the present day. Unable to complete it himself, he desired its completion by Mr. Stephen Jones, to which Mr. Jones acceded. It will make three vols. 8vo.

Mr. T. D. W. Dearn, Architect to His Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, will publish Sketches in Architecture, consisting of original designs for cottages and rural dwellings, suitable to persons of moderate fortune, and for convenient retirement, with plans and appropriate scenery to each; also some general observations. Engraved on 20 plates, large quarto.

Speedily will be published by W. F. Pocock, Architect, on 33 plates, royal quarto, Sketches for Rustic Cottages, Rural Dwellings, and Villas, composed in the ancient English, the Grecian, and Roman Styles, with plans and descriptions; practical observations on character, scenery, and situation proper for such buildings, particularly as appropriate to castles, abbeys, old English houses, &c. with practical remarks on the execution of buildings in general, and the most general causes of the decay.

Mr. Barrow, author of Travels in China, will publish, in a few weeks, his expected

account of the public life, and a selection from the unpublished writings, of the Earl of Macartney, in two quarto volumes.

The first number of the Transactions of the Entomological Society of London, will appear in a few days.

Shortly will be published, a new edition of Sowerby's Botanical Drawing Book; with great additions, corrections, and improvements. —Also, a concise prodromus of the British Minerals in the author's Cabinet; as a sort of essay towards forming a new, natural, and easy arrangement as referring to the author's British Mineralogy; and designed for the use of those who may find it more useful for a library than a travelling book. Mr S. having observed, that, the systems hitherto published, are without any regular or scientific foundation; has presumed to offer this new arrangement to the public, in the hope of obtaining their sanction, and assistance; from the conviction of its importance in facilitating the acquisition of scientific information, in this curious, interesting, and very important, though neglected department of natural history.

Also, Sowerby's Essay towards forming a new, useful, and universal Chromatic Scale, or list of colours; arranged with so much facility and simplicity, as he thinks will tend to produce an universal agreement on this highly important, but little understood branch of philosophy.

A new edition of Sir William Jones's Works, with his life, by Lord Teignmouth, in 13 octavo volumes, is in preparation.

Dr. Jarrold of Manchester, author of Dissertation on Man, &c. has in the press Dissertations on the Form and Colour of person of the Man, in quarto.

It is proposed to publish by subscription, on super royal-folio, a series of ancient allegorical, historical, and legendary paintings in fresco, discovered, in the summer of 1804, on the walls of the Chapel of the Trinity, at Stratford upon Avon, in Warwickshire, from drawings made at the time of their discovery, by Mr. Thomas Fisher, also views and sections, illustrating the architecture of the chapel. The work will consist of seventeen ancient paintings in fresco, exhibiting specimens of the art in two distinct ages, but both prior to the reformation. They were brought to light by the accidental removal of whitewash during the repair of the chapel, in 1804. The subsequent destruction of the originals suggests the propriety of offering copies of them to the public, lest, through any accident which may hereafter befall the drawing, every memorial of them should be lost.

Messrs. Matthison and Mason, of the Secretary's Office, East-India House, have published a new edition of their East-India Register for this year, corrected up to May 20.

OBITUARY.

On the 18th May, died the duke of Montpensier, second son of the Duke of Orleans; unhappily distinguished by the name of Egalité. It is well known that that Duke fell a victim to the violence of a Revolution, the course of which he could not foresee, and his family fell with him from the height of rank and splendour to the depths of horror and misery. The elder son of this family, now Duke of Orleans, sought refuge in America. By the prevailing party, which regarded compassion as an ignoble sentiment, and unfit for a place in the bosom of staunch republicans, the two younger brothers were in 1793 plunged into the dungeons of Fort St. John at Marseilles. Here they languished together, during the long period of forty-three months; Nor was their captivity lightened by the cheerful hope of a favourable termination. Barbarity was the order of the day; and it shewed itself hardened against the tender feelings of humanity, by wantonly predicting to its victims, daily, its fatal termination of their captivity.

The brothers, however, made an attempt to escape from their prison. The youngest, the Count de Beaujolois, succeeded; and had arrived at a place where he was secreted in security. But the Duke of Montpensier in descending from the walls which it was necessary to pass, fell, from a considerable height, and broke his leg. By means of this accident he was retaken, and returned to his dreadful habitation. The Count de Beaujolois on being informed of this misfortune, renewed the celebrated example of Nisus and Euryalus, and surrendered himself without delay to share the imprisonment of his brother. At length, in one of the changes of the French Government, the brothers obtained their release, and after infinite sufferings, they rejoined their elder brother the Duke of Orleans in America. From that country they came to England, where they found a safe and honourable asylum. They were favourably received by the Royal Family: and the Duke de Montpensier, in particular, met with a sympathy, capable, if any thing were so, of alleviating his sufferings. Her Majesty even condescended to furnish him with various articles of accommodation from her own palace.

The Duke terminated a career marked by misfortune, sorrow, and distress, with a constancy of mind and elevation of character, which would have ensured applause in the high station to which he was born. In the short space of 32 years he manifested exemplary firmness and magnanimity, united with uncommon talents. At the tender age of 16, he displayed heroic courage in Champagne, and particularly at the battle of Jemappes.*

* Gen. Dumouriez, who commanded the

But his example is perhaps still more beneficial, when considered as supporting with fortitude, the privations and adversities of exile, while it affords a lesson of moderation to those of the highest honours and rank of life.

The late Duke was deposited May 26, in Westminster Abbey, with great funeral pomp; but it is expected that the body will be removed to France, when peace permits. It was brought from Salt Hill on Monday, and lay in state at King Street Chapel, Portman Square, till removed to the Abbey. The Duke of Bourbon was chief mourner. Three of the royal carriages attended: 1. that of the Duke of Sussex. 2. D. of York. 3. Prince of Wales.

Same day, at Windsor, John Douglas, D.D. Bishop of Salisbury, and Chancellor of the most noble Order of the Garter. This prelate possessed great literary talents, which first appeared with distinguished merit in his vindication of Milton, against the attacks of Lauder who had charged him with plagiarism, and with converting to his own use not merely the finest passages of ancient writers, but also of modern poets. The craft of this man induced him to forge many passages, which he produced as if they actually existed in the authors from whom he pretended to quote them. For a while his art triumphed: because nobody thought of examining the originals, and those places to which he referred as authorities. But Dr. Douglas with great perseverance, and acumen, traced his alledged proofs, and by unremitting diligence and patience succeeded in detecting the fallacy and imposition. The Dr's reputation was confirmed by his "Criterion, or Rules by which the True Miracles of the New Testament are distinguished from the spurious Miracles of Pagans and Papists;" this also includes an answer to Hume's Essay on Miracles; and the arguments of that licentious reasoner are combated with great ingenuity and resolution. We believe also that we may attribute to him, the Introduction to the Voyages of Capt. Cook, to the Pacific Ocean, &c. which has always been considered as an excellent composition.

Dr. Douglas succeeded Dr. Law in 1787 in the Bishopric of Carlisle, and on the appointment of Bishop Barrington to Durham, in 1791, he was removed to the See of Salisbury. His Lordship had long been afflicted

French army at this battle, against the Austrians, whatever report has lately said to the contrary, is at present in England, where he lives retired; nor has he had any connexion with the Chevalier de Blin (who we understand is in confinement by order of ministers) since September 1805—at which period he dismissed him from his employ of under secretary, and not, as the newspapers have represented him, his aid de camp.

with the gout, which prevented him from any considerable exertion.

He was buried on the 25th in the family vault in Windsor chapel. The Duke of Sussex attended the funeral.

UNIVERSITY PROCEEDINGS AND PROMOTIONS.

Oxford,

April 21. Mr. T. Edwards elected scholar of Jesus col.

April 22. Rev. S. Byam, M.A. of University col., and Rector of Wyke Regis, of Weymouth, and of Portland, Dorset, admitted B.D., and on the 24th D.D., grand compounder.

— 23. In full convocation, unanimously resolved, that an address be presented to his Majesty, humbly thanking him for his firm and steady attachment to our Civil and Religious Establishments. A similar address has been agreed to by the Gentlemen, Clergy and Freeholders of the county.

Rev. Mr. Penrose, M.A. of Corpus-Christi col., has been appointed Bampton Lecturer for the ensuing year of 1808.

Rev. S. Puat, M.A. Prebendary of Hereford, to the vicarage of Bridstow, in that diocese.

May 4. came on the election at Westminster school, when Messrs. T. Salter, W. Cleaver, H. Wickham, and H. Cotton, were chosen students of Christ Church.

Rev. S. Butler, head master of Shrewsbury school, is collated, by the Lord Bishop of Litchfield and Coventry to the Prebendary of Wolvey in the Cathedral of Litchfield.

— 6. D. W. Garrow, Esq. of Christ-Church : Rev. T. Blencowe, of Oriel, and Rev. R. W. Williams, of Jesus col. admitted M.A. and Mr. W. Smith, of Oriel col. admitted B.A.

— 8. Rev. J. Powell, Fellow of Trinity col., is appointed domestic chaplain to the Duke of St. Albans.

— 8. In full convocation, the Rt. Hon. Sir W. Scott, Knt. D.C.L. of University col.; and the Rt. Hon. C. Abbott, D.C.L. of Christ-church, unanimously elected Burgesses to represent the University in Parliament.

— 8. Mr. Firth of New col., elected scholar of Corpus-Christi.

May 12. The honorary degree of M.A. was conferred in convocation on P. Morris, Esq: gent. com. of Worcester col., to which he was presented by the Rev. T. Harward, fellow of the same col.

— 13. G. Cabble, M.A. and student in medicine, of Exeter col. admitted B.A. with licence to practice.

— 14. Rev. J. P. Fisher, B.D. late fellow of University col. now archdeacon of Barnstaple and canon of Exeter; and Rev. W. Carey, B.D. late student of Christ-church, and now

head master of Westminster school, admitted D.D. grand compounder.

Rev. J. Webber, of Christ-church, Rev. W. Doncaster, Rev. T. Lowndes, and Rev. J. Johnson, of Magdalen, M.A. and students in divinity, admitted B.D.; Mr. P. Serle, of Trinity, and Rev. J. Evans, of Jesus, B.A. admitted M.A.

Messrs. J. W. Viven, of All Souls', T. Parker, of Queen's, W. H. Campion, of Brasenose, and R. Goddard, of St. John's, admitted B.A.

Rev. W. Hales, D.D. late fellow of Trinity col. Dublin, admitted to the same degree here.

May 23. Rev. C. E. Stewart, M.A. late Fellow of Magdalen Col. and Rector of Colne Wake, Essex, has been promoted by the Lord Chancellor to the rectory of Rede in Sussex.

Rev. J. Smith, M.A. late of Corpus-Christi col. and head master of Birmingham school, is presented by the Rev. Dr. Cooke, President of Corpus-Christi col. to the head mastership of the free school at Manchester, in the room of C. Lawson, M.A. deceased.

Cambridge:

April 21st, Messrs. J. Cockeril, and C. J. Herbert, of St. John's and Mr. G. H. T. Farbrace, of Christ Coll. admitted.

April 21. Mr. F. Okes, of Caius coll., unanimously elected into one of the Physical studentships founded by C. Tancered, Esq.

April 23. J. Kaye, Esq; of Christ coll. admitted M. A.; and Dr. C. Larcen, of Emmanuel, D.P.

April 23. Rev. H. Marsh, B.D. Fellow of St. John's, unanimously elected Lady Margaret's Professor of Divinity, in room of the late Professor Mainwaring.

May 2. Rev. T. Ackland, of St. John's col., rector of Christ Church, Surry, and Rev. D. Young, of Sidney col. admitted M.A.; and Mr. A. May, of Bene't col. B.A.

— 5. Mr. G. Richards, of King's col. admitted a Fellow.

May 16. Mr. C. Fisher, of Caius col. admitted B.A.

Rev. T. Catton, B.D. Fellow and one of the Tutors of St. John's, has been instituted to the rectory of North Ockendon in Essex, on the presentation of Sir E. Hulse, Bart.

Mr. J. Shaw, B.A. of Christ col., is elected a Fellow; and Mr. W. K. Reeve, B.A. of Clare hall, is elected a Junior Fellow.

Rev. R. W. Carter, B.A. rector of Quarington, is presented, by the King, to the valuable living of Springthorp, both in Lincolnshire. Rev. W. Wilkinson is presented, by the late Lord Chancellor, to the rectory of South Croxton, Leicestershire and to Folksworth Huntingdonshire.

Rev. J. Hogarth, who has been curate of Walton, near Morpeth, 37 years, has been instituted, by the Bishop of Chester, to the valuable rectory of Ripley, in Yorkshire, on the presentation of Sir J. Ingilby, Bart.

BANKRUPTCY SUPERSEDED.

April 27. C. Swannack, Russell street, grocer.
May 19. J. Gaymer, Mistle, grocer.

BANKRUPTS.

April 25. J. Dodd, Pall mall, hatter and hosier. *Att.* Dawson and Wanslaw, Warwick street, Golden sq.
W. Darnall, George yard, near Lombard street, stationer. *Att.* Turner, Edward street, Cavendish square.
E. Pearce, Haymarket, music seller. *Att.* Dawson and Wiatlaw, Warwick street, Golden square.
John Suter, East Retford, Nottingham, mercer. *Att.* G. Atkinson, Carlisle street, Falcon square.
M. Laird, Redburn, Hertford, straw hat manufacturer. *Att.* Morton, Furnival's inn, Holborn.
W. Marke, Liverpool, timber merchant. *Att.* Blackstock, Saint Mildred's court, Poultry.
J. Vpond, Pearsh, hat dresser and grocer. *Att.* R. Wordsworth, Staple inn.
H. and J. Wilcock, Manchester, stay makers. *Att.* Huxley, Temple.
W. Young, Leason, grocer. *Att.* Lowndes and Lambert, Red Lion square.
S. Cox, Bourton, miller and cheese factor. *Att.* Dyne, Serjeant's inn.
C. T. Skurray, Lloyd's Coffee house, underwriter. *Att.* Robinson, No. 7, New square, Lincoln's inn.
J. Chapman, Martin's lane, drysalter. *Att.* Gregson and Dickson, Angel court.
J. Hewlett, Gloucester, cabinet maker. *Att.* Jenkins, James, and Co. New Inn.
B. Short, Finsbury place, merchant. *Att.* Drewe and Loxham, New Inn.
S. Poole, Cheapside, haberdasher and milliner. *Att.* Earnshaw, Red cross street.
R. Higham, Preston, corn merchant and flour dealer. *Att.* Windle, John street.
W. N. Dawson, Tabernacle square, draper. *Att.* Hiarich, Palsgrave place.
E. Oates, Leeds, drysalter. *Att.* Allen, Exley, and Stocker, Furnival's inn.
W. Drake, Gutter lane, warehouseman. *Att.* Blunt, Old Pay Office.
W. Stevens, Little St. Thomas Apostle, money scrivener. *Att.* Everest, Epsom.
April 28. W. Brown, Liverpool, tailor. *Att.* Battye, Chancery lane.
R. Dent, Stoke Gelding, grocer. *Att.* Ruddall and Lewellin, Clement's inn.
J. Allen, Rotherhithe, coal merchant. *Att.* Flexney, Chancery lane.
J. Bishop, St. Swithin's lane, merchant. *Att.* Hester and Fletcher, Lincoln's inn.
W. Hope, Manchester, grocer. *Att.* R. Ellis, Curstort st.
E. Lansdown, Bridgewater, innholder. *Att.* Bleadale, Alexander and Holme, New inn.
T. Barrowclough, Leeds, clothier. *Att.* Sykes and Knowles, New inn.
C. Medley, Bolt in Tun inn, Fleet street, coach master. *Att.* Chappell, New inn.
A. Cassano, Piccadilly, auctioneer. *Att.* Popkin, Dean street, Soho.
May 2. W. Tucker, Exeter, merchant. *Att.* Turner, Exeter.
J. Parker, Ringwood, grocer. *Att.* Jennings and Collier, Great Shire lane.
W. Tredgold, Southampton, tallow chandler. *Att.* J. Rake, Gloucester square, Southampton.
J. Wright, Oldham, mercer. *Att.* J. Latham, Saddleworth. *Att.* Preston, Barton upon Humber, tanner. *Att.* Marris and Co. Barton upon Humber.
M. Puckey, Probus, wool stapler. *Att.* J. Edwards, Truro.
T. Spring, jun. Great Grimsby, ironmonger. *Att.* R. Padison, Louth.
M. Parry, Pontypool, shopkeeper. *Att.* Whitcombe, Grifith and Phillips, Gloucester.
J. Lycatt, Manchester, calico manufacturer. *Att.* W. Palmer, Birmingham.
T. Squire, West square, dealer. *Att.* Holmes and Lewis, Mark lane.
J. Bowyer, Cheapside, warehouseman. *Att.* Ellis, Curstort street.
T. May, Shepperton, shopkeeper. *Att.* Horne, Staines.
J. Percy, Great Portland street, linen draper. *Att.* Hollamby, Furnival's inn.
J. Sayer, Upper North place. *Att.* C. Beckett, Clement's Inn.
J. I. Hawkins, Dalby terrace, manufacturer of musical instruments. *Att.* C. Smart, Clements inn.
J. Bonwick, Fair street, grocer. *Att.* Sherwood, Cushion court.
W. and J. Pollard, Manchester, cotton spinners. *Att.* T. Hewitt, Manchester.
W. Cranston, Drury lane, currier and leather seller. *Att.* Stret and Woolfe, Philpot lane.

A. Reid, Lower East Smithfield, victualler. *Att.* Molnes and Lewis, Mark lane.
A. Braid, Prith street, baker. *Att.* Martelli, Norfolk street.
May 5. W. Pawson, Catham, porter and wine merchant. *Att.* Cooper and Lowe, Southampton buildings.
B. Johnstone, Liverpool, linen and woollen draper. *Att.* Parr and Thompson, Fenwick street, Liverpool.
C. Dudfield, Tewkesbury, innkeeper. *Att.* Windas, Son, and Holtaway, Chancery lane.
W. Benge, Park place, grocer. *Att.* Wadeson, Barlow and Grosvenor, Austin friars.
J. Clark and H. Hall, Market Harborough, worsted and carpet manufacturer. *Att.* Kinderley, Long, and Ince, Holborn court.
R. Sowley and J. Coles, Knowle, corn factors. *Att.* Egerton, Gray's inn square.
J. Barnes, Newport, house carpenter. *Att.* Gilbert, Newport.
T. Abell, Attleburgh, grocer and draper. *Att.* Baxters and Martin, Furnival's inn.
A. Colquhoun, High street, Lambeth, yeast merchant and cooper. *Att.* Marson, Church row, Newington Butts.
J. Williams, Romney Iron Works, shopkeeper. *Att.* Blandford and Sweet, Inner Temple.
R. Vaughan, Fore street, linen draper. *Att.* S. Syddall, Aldersgate street.
M. Agar, Austin friars, ship owner, merchant and underwriter. *Att.* Crowder, Lavie, and Garth, Frederick's place.
R. Kenyon, Manchester, muslin manufacturer. *Att.* Johnson and Bailey, Manchester.
May 9. W. Wyke, Preston, linen draper. *Att.* Blakelock, Temple.
J. James, Sithney, woolstapler. *Att.* Roberts, Heiston.
C. Hubbard, Norwich, haberdasher. *Att.* Geldard, Holborn court.
H. Davis, Old street, cabinet maker. *Att.* Pike, Air street.
E. Gwyn, Belvidere row, timber merchant. *Att.* Clark, Lincoln's inn.
W. Whitaker, Wakefield, and J. Whitaker, Lee Green, clothiers. *Att.* Willis, Warrford court.
R. Palke, Little Hempton, coal merchant. *Att.* Powell, Finch lane.
R. Dewhurst, Preston, upholsterer. *Att.* Blakelock, Temple.
D. Hickling, Frisby, butcher. *Att.* Rigge and Merrifield, Carey street.
M. Scott, Bury, roper. *Att.* Milne and Parry, Old Jewry.
E. Shaw, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, cabinet maker. *Att.* Price, Brown, and Bevan, Lincoln's inn.
W. Lolley, Liverpool, rectifier. *Att.* Hanman, Covent Garden.
R. Harris, Fish street hill, woollen manufacturer. *Att.* Gale and Son, Bedford street.
R. and J. Valentine, Mumford's court, warehousemen. *Att.* Latimer, Gray's Inn square.
T. Hughes, Norfolk street, wine merchant. *Att.* Passmore, Warrford court.
J. D. Burke, Queen's elm, merchant. *Att.* Bousfield, Bouverie street.
J. Bell, Fleur-de-lis street, soap manufacturer. *Att.* Vincent and Upstone, Bedford street.
May 12. M. Bennett, St. Thomas Apostle, yarn manufacturer and serge maker. *Att.* J. B. Pearce, Honiton.
S. Levy, Mansell street, jeweller. *Att.* Poole, Dowgate-hill.
T. E. Poole, Drayton-in-Hales, currier and haberdasher. *Att.* Benbow and Hope, Lincoln's inn.
W. Wells, Rosemary lane, victualler. *Att.* Jones, New court, Crutched friars.
T. Stuart, Bermondsey street, hat manufacturer. *Att.* Buffar, Gray's inn.
T. Dawson, Portland road, dealer and chapman. *Att.* Morgan, Bedford row.
T. Hibbs and R. Saxby, Weeley, grocers.
H. Cross, Albany-house, cook and tavern keeper. *Att.* Blake and White, Essex street.
May 16. D. Atchison, Wealdon Beck, draper and grocer. *Att.* Egerton, Gray's inn.
D. Gosling, Nottingham, victualler. *Att.* Bromley and Bell, Holborn court.
J. Vandrant, Wood street, carpenter. *Att.* Ledwich, Baldwin's court.
S. Smith, Gun street, baker. *Att.* Wilkinson and Church, White Lion street.
T. Poulden, High street, cheesemonger. *Att.* Vincent and Upstone, Bedford street.
J. Dutton, Burwardsley, cheese factor. *Att.* A. Exley, and Stocker, Furnival's inn.
W. Jarmy, Norwich, fellmonger. *Att.* H. Harmer, Norwich.
C. Loveday, Paisford, clothier. *Att.* Shepherd and Adlington, Bedford row.
J. Thorpe, the younger, Saint Ives, linen draper. *Att.* Swain, Stevens, and Maples, Old Jewry.

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

Panorama Office, May 25, 1807.

If the power of looking into futurity were possessed by the human mind, very little gratification would result from it. The anticipation of ill could never be a source of good; and more misery would arise from the consciousness that evils were unavoidable, than enjoyment could be collected from the exercise of a quality so nearly approaching to the powers of divinity. Good and evil are so mingled, that we seldom need fear to predict the approach of one, while we are experiencing the other: and seldom can we determine with certainty the absolute character of those events by which we are conducted day after day in that political obscurity which at present surrounds us. The public mind is at this moment strongly occupied by the eventful struggles of the general election. Nor is this a matter of light moment. We are mistaken if the welfare of our country does not, in a great measure, depend on the talents and principles of the ensuing Parliament. Possibly, too, we might without impropriety add, that not Britain only, but Europe and the world, are involved in the consequences attending the present choice of Representatives. We shall indulge the hope that this national council will prove itself to be composed of able men, and men who think more of the advantage and general benefit of their country, than of the diminutive interests of a party, or the carrying of a question which concerns a few individuals, but is of no importance to the nation. Our governors appear to be intent on strengthening the ranks of the army, and on conciliating the good opinion of the Volunteers. Circular letters have been issued, desiring the Volunteers to maintain their stations: at the same time, the sergeants of the Volunteers are induced by the promise of five guineas for every recruit, to exert themselves in forwarding men to the regular army.

We are not without our conjecture as to foreign affairs: and should be glad if the cause for the interruption of sanguinary conflict, were the disposition of the contending parties to pacific arrangements. We incline to think that Austria has hinted her mediation, and that there is some inclination to take advantage of the overture. In the mean while, the eyes of the world are fixed on the plains of Poland; the thought of half a million of men called into relentless combat by the will of a single individual, with the immense loss which must follow the shock of a general engagement, appalls the heart. It is so great a stake, that we even think, that, for once, the consideration of so many lives has its effect on him, who has certainly, in detail, occasioned

the loss of much greater numbers, but who never was so near immolating in one action, his hundreds of thousands at the shrine of ambition.

Bonaparte has drawn together all the troops within his command. He has anticipated his conscriptions in France. He has drawn nearly 30,000 troops from Spain, which report states as marching for upper Germany: he has diminished his armies in Italy, also; and in short, he is intent on outnumbering his enemies when in action, or being able to repair with promptitude those losses which he foresees. Can he support all these troops for any length of time where he is? No.

The Russians also are not idle, they are forming line behind line of troops, and army behind army. Should Bonaparte force the first line, he must meet the second: but the second will face him as steadily as the first. The Prussians are in motion, aided by British liberality, and may try another exertion to recover their former fame. Whether the principles of the present army will be better than those of that which is lost, we presume not to determine, but, if not, Prussia will have to look back with regret on a once brilliant sovereignty, founded on the hollow basis of military reputation. The siege of Dantzic is pursued by the French with vigour: a vigour hitherto unabated by losses, of which those of one night are stated at 6, or 8,000: mostly Saxon auxiliaries. We suppose that the Russians are making progress on the side of Turkey, and that the Servians are actively engaged on their side. The Turks will be directed by French Officers. Britain has laid an embargo on their vessels. It is also said, that the French have sent a number of officers to Persia, to attack the Russians on that quarter. Thus is Asia, and the East disturbed on behalf of a power whose dominions form the western coast of Europe.

Austria is, most probably, taking proper measures to render herself respectable; she is strengthening her army: and we conjecture that the sudden death of the Empress of Austria, will not be without Political effects, probably in favour of the Archduke Charles, who is reported to have received occasional mortifications, from the political influence of that princess.

Is it possible, that we may anticipate a separation from Sweden?—that she has recalled her ambassador from our court? Denmark exerts all her powers in naval preparations: she has augmented the number of her vessels—has she sufficient seamen for them? The Prince is at the head of an army of 25,000 men. Several French vessels have slipped out of port: most probably with supplies for the West-Indies. The news from India is favourable; so far, at least, as relates to the probable consolidation of peace.

STATE OF TRADE.

Lloyd's Coffee-House, May 20, 1807.

The immense quantity of West India produce lately arrived (added to the present situation of the northern ports of Europe, to which great quantities of coffee and British refined sugar used to be exported) has thrown a great damp upon the market, and subjects the planters in the West Indies to great inconveniences, as well as our merchants at home, concerned in the trade. Until the northern ports are again open to receive our colonial produce, there is no likelihood of a change for the better. Cotton scarcely pays more than freight, insurance and general charges: this we attribute pretty much to the same cause; as the export of manufactured cottons and callicoes to the parts of the continent alluded to is in a great degree suspended, and consequently our manufacturers at Manchester, Glasgow, and Paisley, feel the unpleasant effect. The Americans have, however, taken off considerable quantities of the coarser kinds of goods; and we trust that Buenos Ayres (if in our possession) will find purchasers for large parcels which were some months ago made up for that market, the patterns of which being suited to the Spanish market, would not readily find sale elsewhere.

By the latest accounts from the East Indies, all kinds of European manufactures were to be purchased there on very reasonable terms; owing to the immense quantity of goods which went out under convoy of the *Atamant*, man of war. It is said, that there is at present full twelve months consumption already exported; we therefore recommend our friends speculating to that quarter of the globe to act with prudence.

The fleet lately arrived from the Mediterranean has brought us abundance of Turkey goods, which were wanted in the market; and as the Dardanelles and Smyrna are at present blockaded by our ships of war, the commerce of that quarter of the world must suffer interruption for a time; however, there is little doubt but what we can always be supplied with merchandize, so long as we can find British gold to purchase, and neutral bottoms to carry it. The Americans who for years past, have been the carriers of the world, will here find additional employment. They possess with every other advantage, that of effecting insurance, at little more than one fourth part of what is paid on British vessels.

American produce of all descriptions in our market has risen considerably in price, in consequence of the existing differences between the two countries, which we trust are, ere now, fully explained, and done away. Pot and pearl ashes have advanced in price within

these two months, from 20 to 25s. per cwt.; tobacco, however, has advanced least of any American commodity in price, and our market is very well stocked with this article, which is of such general consumption; pitch, tar, and turpentine have advanced in price from 1s 6d. to 2s. 9. per barrel. The importation from America of flour into London, within the last eight days, has been 10,450 cwt.; of bacon and hams from Ireland 913 tons; of butter from Tonningen and Holland 385 tons; of cheese from Holland 195 tons; of brandy from France 25,272 gallons; of Geneva from Holland 12,523 gallons; of rum from Jamaica 33,075 gallons; of wine from Portugal, Spain, France, &c. 79,798 gallons; of coffee 7564 cwt., sugar 51,292 cwt., cotton 61,310 cwt., cocoa 940 cwt., all from the West Indies; of tallow 50 tons, and ox hides 18,370 from Monte Video. Our exports have been considerable, particularly to Ireland, of teas, sugars, hops, &c.; and our imports of linen cloth, sheetings, dowlas, &c. from Ireland have been very great, within a few days past; which circumstance has lowered the exchange between the two countries nearly 2 per cent.; the current exchange being now 10½ per cent. or 48s. 4d. per cent. above par; still the balance of trade is somewhat against Ireland, and must be considered as being so, while the course of exchange is above the par, or 8½ per cent.

To such perfection has the manufacture of indigoes arrived in the East Indies of late, that they are equal in quality to, and bring in the London market as high prices, as the finest Spanish Floras that can be imported. Of this description of uncommonly fine indigoes, the East India Company has declared a sale of 11,913 chests, for the 15th July next, prompt on the 20th Nov. following.

The cargoes of seventeen East Indiamen which arrived safely at the close of last month, consist of *Bengal Piece Goods*—pieces of muslins 7,337; pieces of callicoes 69,527. Besides a considerable quantity of prohibited goods. *Madras Goods*—pieces of muslins 173, pieces of callicoes 124,146; with a proportionate quantity of prohibited goods, and a subscription investment of long cloth blue of 13,560 pieces. *Company's Goods*—raw silk 71,025lb.: cochineal 7,200lb.: sugar 47,422 cwt.: saltpetre 41,202 cwt.: hemp and sunn 2659 cwt. Among the privilege goods, which form a considerable addition, are 8817 chests of indigo, 573 bales of raw silk, 1354 chests of gum arabic, 100 chests of cassia, 4425 chests of sugar, cotton and cotton yarn 1148 bales, pepper 3,200 bags. A great variety of other articles also. The whole forming an undeniable proof of the magnitude of our concerns with that remote district of the British Empire.

PRICE OF MEAT.*

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.
Apr. 24	5s. 6d.	6s. 0d.	7s. 0d.	6s. 0d.	7s. 0d.
May 1	4 10	4 9	7 0	6 6	7 6
	8 6	0 5	6 8	0 7	0 8
15	5 0	5 6	8 0	6 6	8 0

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Apr. 24	4 4	4 8	5 8	6 0	7 0
May 1	3 4	3 8	4 4	4 4	5 8
	8 4	6 5	0 5	10 5	4 7
15	4 4	4 6	5 8	5 8	7 4
22	4 8	5 0	5 10	5 8	7 0

		St. James'.*		Whitechapel.*		
		Hay.	straw.	Hay.	straw.	
Apr. 24	£5	8 0	£3 9 0	£5	18 0	£3 6 0
May 1	5	8 0	3 9 0	5	18 0	3 6 0
	8	5 8 0	3 8 0	5	16 0	3 8 0
	15	5 0 0	3 3 0	5	10 0	2 16 0
	22	5 5 0	3 10 0	5	12 0	3 8 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

	Bags.	Pockets.
Kent	£4 10 to £6 0	Kent £5 5 to £6 15
Sussex	4 10 5 10	Sussex 5 0 6 0
Essex	4 10 5 10	Farn. 8 0 9 10

PRICE OF LEATHER.*

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	—	—	—	22½d
Dressing Hides	—	—	—	18
Crop Hides for cutting	—	—	—	22
Flat Ordinary	—	—	—	20
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb.	—	—	—	42
Ditto 50 to 70	—	—	—	40

TALLOW.* London average per stone

of 8lb. 3s. 3½d.
Soap, yellow, 78s.; mottled, 88s.; curd, 92s.
Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

COALS IN THE RIVER.

	Sunderland.	Newcastle.
Apr. 27	44s. 0d. to 44s. 3d.	44s. 0d. to 58s. 0d.
May 4	43 0 44 9	43 0 50 0
11	42 0 43 0	43 6 48 0
18	42 0 43 0	43 6 48 0

Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance.

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Apr. 30	3s. 11d.	1s. 11½d.	0s. 11½d.
May 7	3 11	1 11½	0 11½
14	3 11	1 11½	0 11½
21	3 11	1 11½	0 11½

Those marked thus *, are taken at the highest Price of the market.

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	April 24.	May 1.	May 8.	May 15.
Amsterdam	36-8—2 u.	36.8	36-8	36-8
Ditto at sight	36	36	36	36
Rotterdam, c. f.	11-9	11-9	11-9	11-9
Hamburgh	34-10—2½ u.	34-10	34-10	34-10
Altona	34-11—2½ u.	34-11	34-11	34-11
Paris liv.	24 10 st.	24-10	24-10	24-10
Ditto 2 us.	24-14—2 u.	24-14	24-14	24-16
Bordeaux	24 14	24-14	24-14	24-16
Cadiz	38½	38½	38½	38½
Madrid	38½	38½	38½	38½
Bilboa	37½	37½	37½	37½
Leghorn	49½	49½	49½	49½
Naples	42	42	42	42
Genoa	45	45	45	45
Venice, n. C.	52	52	52	52
Lisbon	65	65	65	65
Oporto	65	65	65	65
Dublin	10½	10½	10½	10½
Cork	11½	11½	11½	11½

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

	Apr. 18	4807 quarters.	Average	75s. 5d.
25	4146	—	—	73 04
May 2	6016	—	—	72 1
9	4590	—	—	72 3

FLOUR.

	Apr. 17	13,164 sacks.	Average	64s. 7½d
24	26,989	—	—	64 4½
May 1	13,699	—	—	64 5½
8	9367	—	—	64 4½

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

	11 o'clock Night.	Noon 1 o'clock.	8 o'clock Morning.	Height of Barom.	Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hygrom.
Apr. 21	33	43	36	30.10	25	Cloudy
22	36	51	44	29.90	26	Cloudy
23	44	58	49	.92	30	Fair
24	49	63	50	30.05	27	Fair
25	51	64	52	.15	40	Fair
26	51	66	49	.25	35	Fair
27	52	72	61	.11	70	Fair
28	60	71	59	.14	52	Fair
29	60	69	58	.05	40	Fair
30	60	70	54	29.93	40	Fair
May 1	62	76	61	.78	51	Fair
2	63	77	62	.75	66	Fair
3	56	76	58	.76	51	Fair
4	55	56	52	.65	0	Rain
5	53	69	52	.81	40	Fair
6	56	60	52	.02	30	Cloudy
7	54	57	46	.23	0	Showerly
8	49	54	45	.65	10	Showerly
9	46	53	45	.32	0	Rain
10	45	54	44	.50	9	Cloudy
11	45	53	48	.86	0	Rain
12	50	58	55	.55	0	Rain
13	55	63	54	.65	15	Cloudy
14	51	55	52	.78	0	Rain
15	54	68	54	.80	20	Fair
16	56	65	54	30.08	27	Fair
17	56	68	56	.11	41	Fair
18	57	72	46	.30	51	Fair
19	46	59	45	.32	32	Fair
20	45	58	51	.19	25	Fair

PRICES OF BULLION.

	Per oz.	Per oz.	Per oz.	Per oz.
Portugal gold in coin and bars	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Doubloons	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
New dollars	0 5 5	0 5 5	0 5 5	0 5 5
Silver in bars	0 5 8	0 5 8	0 5 8	0 5 8
New Louis, each	0 5 8	0 5 8	0 5 8	0 5 8
Agio on Bank of Holland, 5½p.ct.	—	—	—	—

To Bengal, Madras, or China	£6
Ditto out and home	12
Senegambia	10 gs.
Madeira	6 gs. ret. 3
Windward and Leeward Islands	8 gs. ret. 4
Jamaica	8 gs. ret. 4
South Whale-fishery and back	20 gs.
Un. States of America (Brit. ships)	8 gs. ret. 4
Ditto (American ships)	3 gs.
Malaga and places adjacent	10 gs. ret. 5
Salonica, Gallipoli, &c.	20 gs. ret. 10
Lisbon and Oporto	6 gs. ret. 3
Riga, Revel, Narva, or Petersburg	4 gs. ret. 2
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen	1½ gs.
Glasgow	3 gs.
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and Newry	2½ gs.
Belfast and Londonderry	
Limerick, Galway, or Sligo	3 gs.
Portsm. Spith. Poole, or Isle of Wight	14 gs.
Weym. Exeter, Dartm. or Plym.	14 gs.
Bristol, Wales, Chester, Liverp. Whith.	2 gs.
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull, Newcastle, &c.	14 gs.
Alderney, Guernsey, or Jersey	2 gs.
Inverness, Shetland, Orkney Islands	1½ gs.
Toenngen (neutrals)	2 gs.
Gottenburg, Christiana, &c.	3 gs. ret. 30s.
Stockholm and places adjacent	4 gs. ret. 2
Musquito shore, Honduras, places adj.	10 gs.
Newfoundland, Coast of Labrador	6 gs. ret. 3
Cape G. H. or St. Helena (Comp. ships)	4 gs.
Liverpool, Bristol, &c. to Dublin,	14 gs.
Waterford, or Cork	

American pot-ash, per cwt.	£3	3	0	to	£3	12	0
Ditto pearl	3	16	0		4	0	0
Brandy, Coniac	gal.	1	0	4	1	0	6
Ditto Spanish	..	0	18	6	0	18	9
Camphire, refined	.. lb.	0	5	6	0	5	8
Ditto unrefined	cwt.	14	10	0	20	0	0
Cochineal, garbled	.. lb.	1	2	6	1	12	0
Ditto East-India	..	0	5	3	0	6	6
Coffee, fine	.. cwt.	7	0	0	7	18	0
Ditto ordinary	..	5	11	0	6	4	0
Cotton-wool, Surinam, lb.	0	1	11	0	0	2	4
Ditto Jamaica	..	0	1	6	0	1	8
Ditto Smyrna	..	0	1	6	0	1	7
Ditto East-India	..	0	0	11	0	1	1
Currants, Zant	.. cwt.	3	10	0	4	1	0
Deals, Dantz	.. piece	1	12	0	0	0	0
Ditto Petersburg	.. H.	22	0	0	23	0	0
Ditto Stockholm	..	38	0	0	40	0	0
Elephants Teeth	.. cwt.	32	0	0	38	0	0
—Scrivell	22	0	0	0	27	0	0
Flax, Riga	.. ton	70	0	0	80	0	0
Ditto Petersburg	..	67	0	0	68	0	0
Galls, Turkey	.. cwt.	6	17	6	7	0	0
Geneva, Hollands	.. gal.	1	0	4	1	0	6
Ditto English	..	0	8	6	0	12	0
Gum Arabic, Turkey, cwt.	11	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto Sandrach	..	7	10	0	9	0	0
Ditto Tragacanth	..	24	0	0	0	0	0
Gum Seneca	.. cwt.	5	15	0	6	0	0
Hemp, Riga	.. ton	64	0	0	66	0	0
Ditto Petersburg	..	66	0	0	0	0	0
Indigo, Carracc.	.. lb.	0	11	6	0	13	0
Ditto East-India	..	0	5	9	0	12	6
Iron, British, bars, ton	18	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto Swedish	..	28	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto Norway	..	22	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto Archangel	..	none.					
Lead in pigs	.. fod.	39	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto red	.. ton	37	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto white	..	54	0	0	0	0	0

To Oporto or Lisbon	6 gs. ret. 3
Gibraltar	8 gs. ret. 4
Madeira	6 gs. ret. 3
Jamaica	8 gs. ret. 4
Leeward Islands	8 gs. ret. 4
Un. States of America (Brit. ships)	8 gs. ret. 4
Ditto (American ships)	3 gs.
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, &c.	
To London	2½ gs.
Lisbon and Oporto	8 gs. ret. 4
United States of America (Brit. ships)	10 gs.
Ditto (American ships)	3 gs.
West Indies	8 gs. ret. 4
Jamaica	8 gs. ret. 4
Liverpool or Chester	25s. 6d.
The Baltic, to Yarmouth, Lynn,	10 gs. ret. 2
Hull, Gainsbro', Newcastle,	
Whitby, Leith, Portsmouth,	12 gs. ret. 2
Exeter, Plymouth or London	
Bristol, Liverpool, Lancaster,	4 gs.
Dublin, &c.	
Poole and Dartmouth—Exeter	25 gs.
and Plym. to Newfoundland	
Newfoundland to Jamaica, and	10 gs. ret. 5
Leeward Islands	
To Lisbon or Oporto	8 gs. ret. 4
To any one port in the Unit. King.	
Jamaica to the U. States of America	10 gs.
To Quebec, Montreal, Newfoundland	12 gs.
To any one port in the Unit. King.	20 gs. ret. 5
Windw. and Leew. Isl. to Un. States Am.	12 gs.
East Indies to London	15 gs.

Logwood chips	—15	0	0	16	0	0
Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	4	6	0	5	3	0
Mahogany	—ft.	0	1	3	0	2
Oak plank, Dantz.	—last	11	10	0	12	0
Ditto American	—none.					
Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	12	12	0	13	13	0
Ditto spermaceti—ton	68	0	0	69	10	0
Ditto whale	—	29	10	0	30	0
Ditto Florence, ½ chest	2	6	0	2	8	0
Pitch, Stockholm—cwt.	0	14	0	0	15	0
Quicksilver	—lb.	0	3	10	0	3
Raisins, bloom	—cwt.	5	0	0	5	15
Rice, Carolina	—	1	17	0	2	0
Ditto East-India	—none.					
Rum, Jamaica—gal.	0	3	6	0	4	6
Ditto Leeward I.	—	0	2	10	0	3
Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	2	15	6	2	16	0
Shellack	—	3	10	0	7	10
Thrown-silk, Italian, lb.	1	15	0	2	11	0
Raw-silk, Ditto	—	1	3	0	1	10
Ditto China	—	1	9	0	1	13
Ditto Beng. novj	—	0	9	0	1	2
Ditto organzine	—	0	18	0	1	10
Tar, Stockholm—bar.	1	7	0	1	7	6
Tin in blocks—cwt.	6	3	0			
Tobacco, Maryl.	—lb.	0	0	44	0	0
Ditto Virginia	—	0	0	6	0	0
Whale-fins—ton	26	0	0	0	0	0
Red port—pipe	90	0	0	96	0	0
Lisbon	—	87	0	0	90	0
Madeira	—	80	0	0	120	0
Sherry—butt	92	0	0	160	0	0
Mountain	—	75	0	0	89	0
Vidonia—pipe	75	0	0	78	0	0
Calcavella	—	84	0	0	94	0
Claret—hogs.	70	0	0	90	0	0
Tailow, English—cwt.	2	16	6	0	0	0
Ditto Russia, white	—	2	10	0	0	0
Ditto yellow	—	2	14	6	0	0
Wax, Guinea,	—	12	10	0	14	0

STATE OF THE ROYAL NAVY.—In commission, of the line, 141—50 to 44 guns, 22—Frigates, 167—Sloops, 210—Gun brigs, 238—Total 778.—In ordinary, of the line, 38—50 to 44 guns, 14—Frigates, 49—Sloops, 40—Gun brigs, 7—Total 143.—Building, of the line, 35—50 to 44 guns, 0—Frigates, 25—Sloops, 32—Gun brigs, 2—Total 94.—Grand Total, 915.

	Bank Stock.	3 p. Cent. Reduced.	3 p. Cent. Consols.	4 p. Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 per Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol. Short Ann.	5 p. Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 p. Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuity.	New Ditto.	Navy and Vict. Bills.	3d. Excheq. Bills.	3½ d. Ditto.	Lottery Tickets.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 p. Cent.
April 21	2354	61½	63	80½	—	96½	17½	—	—	1	P Shrub	—	186½	—	4P	—	—	—	—	—	—	ID	63½	4½	P
22	234	61½	62½	80½	—	96½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186½	—	4P	—	—	—	—	—	ID	63	4	—	
23	234½	62	62½	80½	—	96½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186½	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	62½	4	—	
24	—	62	62½	80½	—	96½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	63	3½	—	
28	234½	62½	63	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186½	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1D	63½	4½	—	
29	233½	62½	63	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186½	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	63½	4	91½	
30	223	62½	63½	80½	—	98	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186½	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	63½	3½	—	
May 1	—	62½	63½	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	ID	—	4½	—	
2	—	62½	63½	80½	—	98	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	ID	19 18 0	63½	—	
4	—	62½	63½	80½	—	98	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	—	
6	231½	62½	63½	81	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	7½	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	—	
6	230½	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	7½	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
7	—	62½	63½	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	6P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
8	230	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1P	19 18 0	63½	—	
9	229½	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1P	19 18 0	63½	—	
11	230	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
12	230½	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	7½	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
13	—	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
14	232½	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	186	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
15	—	62½	63½	80½	—	97½	17½	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	1P	—	63½	4½	
16	231½	62½	63½	80½	—	98	17½	—	—	1	—	7½	—	—	5P	—	—	—	—	—	—	19 18 0	63½	—	

Daily Prices of STOCKS, 21st April to 16th May, 1807.

Erratum—Page 341, lines 18, and 16, from the bottom, for Ansades, read Crusades.